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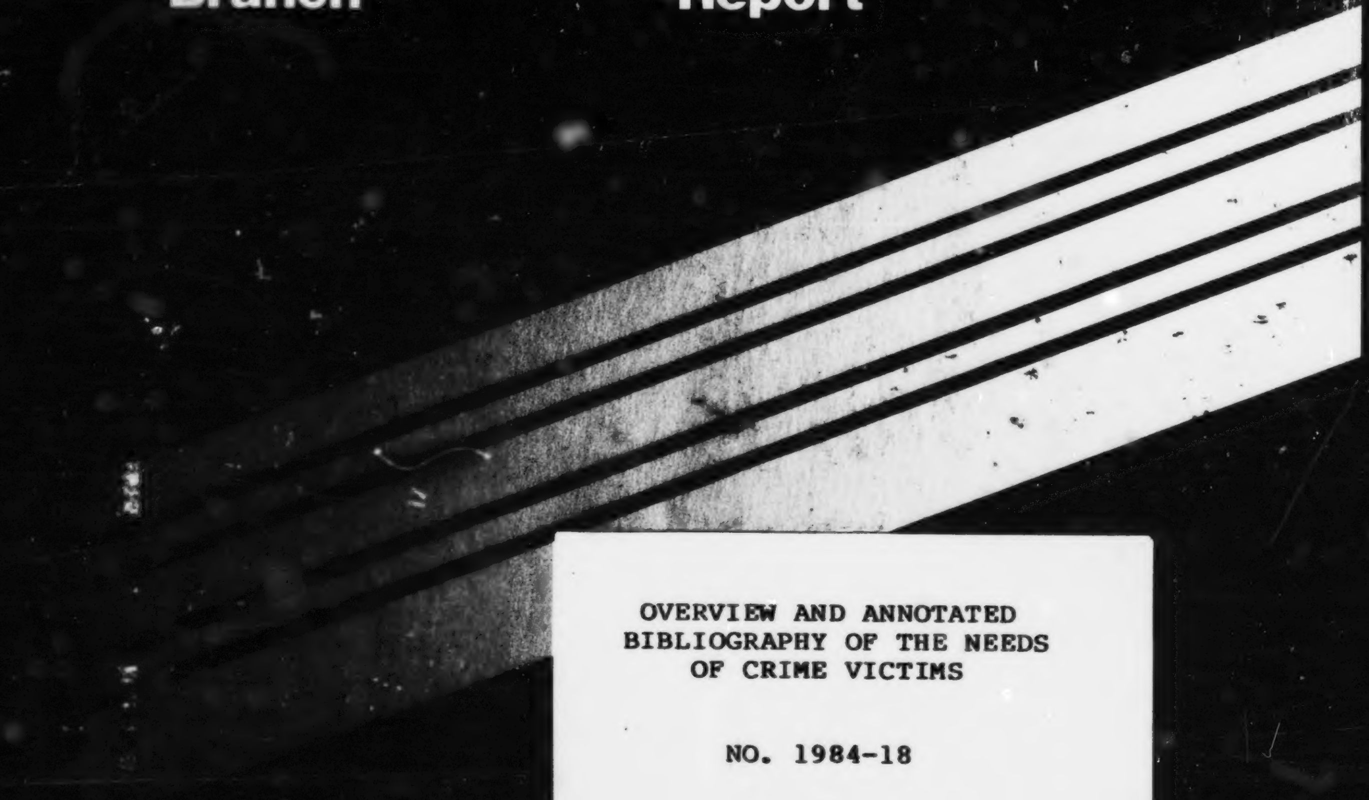

OVERVIEW AND ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF THE NEEDS OF CRIME VICTIMS

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ABSTRACT

An extensive amount of literature on various issues relating to crime victims has become available over the past few years. This report consists of an overview and annotated bibliography of the literature which relates specifically to the needs of victims. Particular emphasis is placed on Canadian literature which addresses the needs of victims of wife abuse, child abuse/incest, and sexual assault, and on the elderly, natives, and rural residents as crime victims. Key references from other countries have also been included where the availability of Canadian literature was limited.

I

OVERVIEW

A. INTRODUCTION

This report consists of an overview and annotated bibliography of the contemporary literature on the needs of crime victims. The aims of the overview are to both summarize, and provide a reader's guide to the material in the bibliography. The bibliography itself consists of abstracts of a selection of reports, journal articles and books. Due to the great volume of potential entries, certain selection criteria were applied: Canadian work was emphasized whenever it was available, and major recent reports from other countries (especially the U.S.) were included provided their findings were not clearly applicable only in the country of origin.

The literature on the needs of crime victims does not lend itself to the establishment of simple categories. Some of the literature focusses on particular types of crimes, e.g. burglary or sexual assault. In other material, the emphasis is placed on the needs of specific "types" of people, e.g. the elderly or natives. Clearly these two categorization schemes overlap -- elderly burglary victims do exist. No attempt is made in this report to reconcile these overlaps or to develop a more rational categorization system. Rather, the literature is described as it was found, inconsistencies intact. In addition to material on the general impacts of crime, the following types of crime and/or victim are given specific consideration in this report: burglary, robbery, wife abuse, child abuse/incest, sexual assault, the elderly, native Canadians and rural victims.

In summarizing the literature on these victim/crime types, an attempt has been made to cover the full range of identified victim needs meaning both primary needs (generated directly by the offense) and secondary needs (referring to victim needs arising from the criminal justice systems reponse to the victim).

B. IMPACTS OF CRIME AND VICTIM NEEDS

The impact which any given crime will have on the victim involved will depend on a variety of factors. Important among these are characteristics of the victim, characteristics of the offender, the nature of the offense, and society's response to the event and to the victim. Some of the impacts of the crime will evoke needs for assistance on the part of the victim. Society may be able to respond to some of these needs by offering services of various kinds to crime victims. In the first section of that overview of the literature, the general impacts of crime are discussed.

General Assessments

A sizable body of literature examines the general impacts of crime on victims, and the stages which many victims go through in recovering from these impacts. Three distinct stages are recognized by most researchers in this field: impact, recoil and reorganization (Bard et al., 1979; Baril, 1980; Howard, 1979; Hindelang et al., 1978; Krupnik et al., 1980).

The symptoms experienced in the "impact" stage may include helplessness, disorientation, a need for support, fear, and some forms of hysteria or paranoia (Krupnik et al., 1980). Such emotional/psychological effects may also be associated with physical symptoms: trembling, vomiting, paralysis, and memory loss (Bard et al., 1980; Baril, 1980; Searson, 1982).

At the "recoil" stage, the victim may experience long-lasting psychological/emotional effects, such as nervousness, depression, lack of appetite, difficulty in sleeping and suspiciousness. These effects may in turn provoke behavioural changes. For example, the daily routine may be altered or abandoned, or home security improved. Some victims even relocate their households (DuBow, 1979). At this second stage, many victims will use his/her "social network" for support (Friedman, et al., 1981).

Eventually, most victims will be able to reorganize their lives and overcome the effects of the crime. Some will need short-term psychotherapy, others will need more extensive treatment. However, it is generally agreed that the most important intervention point is at the "impact" stage, where the victim most needs to be supported and understood. This is particularly true for the agents of the criminal justice system who deal with the victim immediately after the crime.

Researchers have not to date been able to precisely specify the determinants of the varying degrees of crisis reaction experienced by different individuals. Most logically, they would consist of a combination of the characteristics of the victim, the type of crime, and the nature of the contact with the offender (Halpern, 1973). In other words, violent personal crimes committed against victims who are physically less able to cope or have fewer resources (e.g., the elderly), would be expected to produce the greatest impact.

The question of the impact of the system on the victim is the last issue dealt with, and it, in fact, accounts for a great proportion of the literature. While some of the literature on this problem is presented here, much has been left out since it is extensively discussed in other sources (e.g., Becker, 1976; Doerner, 1980; McDonald, 1976; Reiff, 1979). The major issues examined are: the insensitivity shown by the criminal justice system towards victims, the latter's lack of information on and knowledge of the procedures of the CJS, and the lack of adequate services to help victims overcome the effects of their victimization. Such aspects of the CJS and their impacts on the victim may at times cause the recovery process to be more difficult (as is argued in the case of sexual assault for instance) or may discourage further participation with the CJS and increase feelings of cynicism about justice in our society. Indeed, some authors maintain that improved services for victims and witnesses could be cost effective for the CJS and for society. Such a claim has yet to be clearly supported however.

The material discussed above has focussed on the general impacts of crime on victims. Recently, a complementary body of Canadian literature has become available which documents both the impacts of crime, and the associated need for services as seen from the victims' perspective.

Such studies of victims' needs have recently been conducted in four Canada cities: Kitchener-Waterloo (Brown and Yantzi, 1980), Winnipeg (Brickey, 1982), Calgary (Muir, 1982) and Ottawa (Searson, 1982). These projects involved sample surveys of victims of both person and property crimes. Respondents were both questioned as to their perceived needs, and prompted for their opinions regarding a range of possible services. The results of these studies were quite similar and can be summarized as follows:

Someone to talk to. Victims of both person and property crimes reported a need to talk to someone immediately after their victimization (Brickey, 1982; Brown and Yantzi, 1980; Muir, 1982, Searson, 1982). This individual may or may not be trained in crisis intervention or counselling but should be capable of effectively providing a "sympathetic ear."

A companion for security. Victims of both person and (to a lesser extent) property crimes indicated that their levels of fear and stress would have been reduced immediately after the crime had they had someone to stay with them for a few days (Brickey, 1982; Muir 1982).

Greater police concern. Many victims felt that the police did not seem concerned about them and their problems as they thought they should be (Brown and Yantzi, 1980; Muir, 1982).

Financial assistance. A subset of victims of property crimes reported a need for emergency financing and for financial compensation (Brickey, 1982; Muir, 1982).

Advice on procedures. Many victims of property crimes reported a need for practical advice on applying for compensation and insurance, and on reporting stolen credit cards and identification. More information on preventive measures was also mentioned (Brown and Yantzi, 1980; Muir, 1982).

Information on case progress. In the longer term, many victims indicated that they lacked information on both the progress of the police investigation of their case, and of the court process once charges were laid (Brickey, 1982; Brown and Yantzi, 1980; Muir, 1982, Searson, 1982).

Burglary and Robbery

The bulk of the literature on burglary and robbery deals with the social distribution of these crimes, their patterns of commission, and prevention techniques (see, for example, Cohen et al., n.d.; Dunn, 1977; Reppetto, 1974). However, recent studies have also shown that burglary and robbery may have severe impacts on their victims (Maguire, 1980; Waller et al., 1978). Burglary violates what is usually perceived as one of the most intimate places: the home. This violation first produces feelings of anger, fear, surprise and deceit. The victim will ask "why me" and will wonder why his/her home was selected. In addition, feelings of suspicion towards neighbours, friends and relatives may be elicited. The financial impact is considered to be minimal and most often is. Yet, it is not so much the amount of cash or goods stolen that disturbs the victim, but the fact that the house has been invaded, and the related fact that some goods of sentimental value may have been lost. Also, when vandalism is involved, fear and disbelief are evoked by the irrationality of the act. In burglary cases involving vandalism, the victim may think of moving.

Robbery (non-commercial, or where the direct victim is the clerk or the owner himself) also involves direct contact with the offender and more often than not the presence of a weapon. The victim may experience intense fear, temporary paralysis and/or hysteria, and total helplessness (Grenier et al., 1979; Baril, 1980).

As far as their contact with the criminal justice system is concerned, the problems encountered by burglary and robbery victims may differ. Burglary victims rarely have to go through the whole process (relative to the actual number of burglaries), since the offender is rarely caught. However, they first have to deal with a police officer who will often not appreciate the trauma associated with their victimization. Secondly, if the residence has been damaged, these victims may have difficulty finding a locksmith or other needed assistance since most burglaries occur at night and on weekends. Thirdly, if stolen goods are ever located, they may be kept for a long time by the police as evidence before the victim is able to recover them.

Victims of robbery, on the other hand, will more often make it through the whole process due to the relatively greater frequency of identification of suspects (compared to burglary). Some studies reveal that burglary victims perceive themselves as being used by the system, e.g. as Crown witnesses, rather than as being taken care of (Grenier et al., op.cit.).

The needs of burglary and robbery victims. The particular characteristics of burglary and robbery indicate the need for:

Emergency home repair service. Of particular concern here are after-hour services to make repairs sufficient to secure the residence or commercial establishment until such time as more permanent repairs can be made.

Counselling. This service would be aimed at reducing the emotional trauma resulting from the crime.

Restitution. Victims of all property loss and/or damage crimes could be offered the opportunity to apply for court-ordered restitution from the offender(s) involved.

Speedy property return. Victims whose property has been retained as evidence for the prosecution of suspected offenders should have their property returned to them as quickly as possible.

Crime prevention information. Victims of robbery and burglary often request information on how to reduce the probability of future victimization.

Wife Assault

Reliable estimates of the evidence of wife assault are not yet available. Various published estimates argue that from 10% to 50% of all women living with a male partner will be assaulted at least once during the relationship (McLeod, 1980; Lewis, 1982). If the definition of spousal abuse is understood to include psychological mistreatment e.g., threatening or enforced isolation, then these incidence estimates would be even higher. The variation in these estimates reflects several factors including the relatively low reporting rate for these assaults, the historical reluctance of the criminal justice system to treat these acts as warranting the laying of charges and the low rate of conviction.

While research conducted to date has not produced a detailed profile of the typical assaulted wife, several general observations can be made (McLeod, 1980; Jaffe and Burris, 1982, Standing Committee on Health, Welfare and Social Affairs, 1982):

- Abused women are emotionally and (often) legally attached to their assailants.
- They are usually economically dependent on their assailants.
- Their assailant is often the father of at least one of their children.
- The victim is likely still living with her assailant when she contacts the police.
- Many assaulted wives live in areas where they do not have access to transition houses or shelters (Lewis, 1982).

One area where the literature is perhaps surprisingly lacking, is on the effects of wife assault. Whereas the causes of abuse, and the availability of services for abused women are abundantly discussed, relatively little attention has been paid the psychological, physical and sociological effects of abuse. The literature on the psychological effects of abuse concentrates mainly on the feelings of helplessness characterizing many assaulted wives and their frequent denial of the existence of a problem (Breton, 1979; Connick, 1982; Gammon, 1978; Langley et al., 1977). These psychological aspects are clearly related to the sociological aspects: the economic dependency of most assaulted wives, the presence of children and the pressures of the community all of which reinforce feelings of guilt and loneliness for the woman (Renvoize, 1978; Roy, 1977; Walker, 1979). Further, should she attempt to leave the home or seek help, she faces the possibility of retaliation, and thus more physical suffering.

Battering is considered to follow a three-stage cycle: tension-building, explosion, and calm respite (Walker, 1979). This cyclical nature of battering, associated with the biases of the criminal justice system and the social prejudices attached to this crime, all emphasize the guilt of the woman and reinforce her feelings of helplessness. When economic dependency, which characterizes most women living in a violent home, is added, helplessness may become chronic. The victim may develop depressive reactions and display submissive and passive behaviour which often not only leads to more tension building in the couple, but are also responded to negatively by outsiders (eg., police officers).

In general, society's response to wife assault has not helped most victims of this crime to solve their own problems. For one thing, the social services network — transition homes, counselling, etc. —has long been concerned with the security of children and has not provided services for abused women and abusing men except on an emergency basis: when the woman needs a shelter or when the man is incarcerated (Connick, 1982; Dutton, 1982; Higgins, 1978; U.S. Civil Rights Commission, 1978). Transition homes often lack sufficient space. There are few programs to deal with prevention or counselling of women or men. With respect to the criminal justice system, few positive approaches are available. Family violence cases are among the most dangerous situations for police officers who may therefore respond reluctantly to these cases.

Many changes have been suggested with respect to police practices, court procedures and helping services. Some have, in fact, been implemented. It has been argued that the traditional police response of reconciling the partners is no longer adequate. A new response, emphasizing a more humane interaction but also considering wife assault as a criminal matter is now being evaluated. At the court level, it is argued that many traditional responses are not appropriate. Alternatives including treatment of the batterer and incarceration are now given consideration (Dutton, 1982; Jaffe et al., 1982). Consequently, transition homes are no longer the sole community resource for assaulted wives: counselling services for both the abused and the abuser are becoming more available.

The relative powerlessness of many wife assault victims to improve their situations, and the somewhat unsupportive nature of the criminal justice system response to their problems subjects these women to both primary and secondary victimization (meaning they are ill-treated by the system as well as by their assailants). A related concern is the adverse effect of the battering on the children in these families. Even if they are not abused themselves (they often are) the negative psychological effects of witnessing continued violence in the family home may be considerable.

The needs of battered wives. Research reports on the service needs of assaulted wives consistently point to five areas of need (Jaffe and Burris, 1982; McLeod, 1980, Standing Committee on Health, Welfare and Social Affairs, 1982):

Protection from further abuse and intimidation. When a wife assault victim first contacts the police, she may expect that they will take action to prevent (in the short-term, at least) a recurrence of the violence which prompted her call for help. In the past however, the police would often merely restore apparent peace and then leave the woman with her assailant. Procedural changes discussed in the literature have included alteration of police procedures to require laying of charges where warranted, removal of the assailant from the house for a cooling off period or at least informing the woman of her rights and of other available services.

Emergency Shelter. At present, a limited number of spaces in transition homes are available to assaulted wives and their children. The main drawback to such houses is that typically they allow only relatively short stays. On a more general policy level, many of these houses also lack a stable funding base. An alternative approach to this problem suggested in the literature has been to provide the matrimonial home for the use of the wife and children and to require the assailant to relocate.

Counselling. Many assaulted wives have very poor self-images and are depressed. They may feel that they have brought their beatings on themselves. They will need counselling to overcome these effects of their battering and to reestablish new lives for themselves and their children. The children might also benefit from counselling to mitigate possible long-term effects of their involvement with family violence.

Legal Information. Assaulted wives need information on justice system procedures to assist them in understanding the options open to them and in, for example, laying charges, or instituting divorce proceedings.

Financial Support. Assaulted wives who sever their ties with a spouse who previously supported both her and her children may need temporary financial aid to re-establish a household. Other financial support may be required for job retraining and day care.

Finally, there remains a more general need for changes in societal attitudes towards wife assault. Only when a broad general understanding is achieved that wife assault is neither acceptable nor a private, family matter, will the recurring cycle of such abuse be broken.

Child Abuse/Incest

Protection of children from abuse by their parents or guardians is the responsibility of provincial agencies. At present, extensive networks of bureaucracies and agencies exist to provide protection for children through both in-house supervision and placement in temporary or foster homes (Robertshaw, 1981).

Estimation of the incidence of both abuse and incest is made difficult by the problems of defining abuse and by the low reporting rates for both types of offense. Some American data, however, are available for incest, suggesting that some intra-family sexual contact with the children occurs in from 10 to 14 per cent of families (Minnesota Program for Victims of Sexual Assault, 1979).

Research reports provide the following general picture of child abuse victims and their abusers:

- Child victims of physical abuse tend to be boys while child victims of sexual abuse are predominantly pre-adolescent girls.
- The majority of reported cases involve abuse which is ongoing rather than limited to a particular occasion.
- Most perpetrators of these offenses are known to the victim. In cases of physical assault, the offender is typically the victim's mother. For sexual assaults the victim's father or step-father is most often responsible.
- In many families where abuse has been detected, it is determined that more than one of the children has been victimized.

What are the psychological/emotional and behavioural consequences of child abuse? First, it is sometimes argued that violence directed at children in the family may create predispositions for future violence from the child as well as delinquency (see Ross, 1979; Senate Standing Committee 1977; Segal, 1979). While no hard data exist to firmly support such assertions, some would still maintain that a violent home breeds future violence. At a more immediate level, abuse of children may cause physical injuries ranging from cuts and bruises to disabilities and even death. Behavioural and psychological aspects of abuse may include impaired ability for enjoyment, enuresis, poor peer relationships, withdrawal, opposition, hypervigilance, compulsivity, precocity and school learning problems (see Martin et al., 1977; Segal, 1979; Gil, 1977; Bailey, 1977; Chase, 1975; Kalmar, 1977; Maden et al., 1977; Smith, 1975 and 1978; and Solberg, 1976). Such effects impair the child's ability to interact normally with others as well as to develop a positive image of himself.

The psychological effects of incest or sexual assault on children may be no less dramatic. Precocity, a distorted sexual identification, fear, guilt and compulsivity may result from incest/sexual assault. Physical injuries may also occur, especially with young female victims (see Berliner, 1977; Burgess, et al., 1980; Butler, 1978; James, 1977; Klemmack, 1977; Meiselmann, 1978; Minnesota, 1979; Nasjeletti, 1980; Roth, 1978; among others).

These psychological, physical and behavioural consequences are however not the only problems facing these children. The socio-legal system may often further victimize them, initial good intentions notwithstanding (Adler, 1978; Franklin, 1977; and Stolk, 1978). The ideas that children are the property of adults, that they may not be reliable witnesses, and that they must be disciplined, have long oriented our thoughts and actions in regard to this issue. Some programs, including mandatory reporting through provincial legislation, better coordination between agencies, and public education, have been designed and implemented in recent years to help set clear guidelines for parents and professionals and to prevent abuse. The literature, however, does not present evaluations of those programs to see what has been achieved.

The needs of abused children. The relative powerlessness of children to defend themselves against abuse, especially from their parents points to the need for (Robinson, 1976; Robertshaw, 1981):

Protection from further abuse and intimidation. This need is currently addressed with varying degrees of success by a range of provincially-administered services. Typical services include in-home supervision and out placement.

Counselling. Research has demonstrated that many abusive parents where themselves abused as children (Maden and Wrench, 1977). This makes the need for abused children to have access to counselling doubly important. Such counselling can serve two purposes: to mitigate both short and long-term psychological damage to the child; and, to reduce the likelihood that the pattern of abuse will be repeated should these individuals become parents themselves.

The consensus in the literature seems to be that the needs of abused children are reasonably well met once these cases are identified to the appropriate authorities. The major inadequacy in the system's overall response to this problem is in the area of detection. Suggested approaches to this shortcoming have included mandatory reporting requirements (with sanctions for non-compliance for professionals such as physicians and teachers, Dickens, 1978), and campaigns to educate the public regarding both the telltale indicators of abuse (Minnesota, 1979), and of their responsibility to report suspected cases. A final concern related to the overall network of agencies responsible for the care of abused children is that there is a need for increased co-ordination of activities and information sharing among the police, child welfare and medical services (Robertshaw, 1981).

Sexual Assault

Victim services in the area of sexual assault against adult females are relatively well-developed (Carrow, 1979). This situation reflects the early entry into the victim services field of organizations associated with the feminist movement. Development of rape crisis centres occurred in response to the historical societal and criminal justice system view of rape victims as active (or at least passive) contributors to their victimization. In the past, many victims of rape have felt themselves to have been "twice-victimized": once by the rapist, and a second time by the insensitive machinations of the justice system (Kinnon, 1981).

The incidence of sexual assault is difficult to determine, largely because of the relatively low reporting rate for these offenses. One widely accepted figure is that one rape in 10 is reported (Kinnon, 1981). Limited data on incidence are available from victimization surveys done in Canada. A recent survey found that approximately 6% of women reported having been raped at least once in their lives while twenty per cent reported having been the victims of some other form(s) of sexual assault (Brickman et al., 1980).

Data on Canadian rape victims portrays the typical victim as young (most are under 20), single and financially dependent on a parent or guardian (Kinnon, 1981). In the majority of cases the rapist was known to the victim, and the rape took place in either the victim's or the rapist's residence (Brickman et al., 1980).

Research into sexual assault has identified a number of short and long-term effects of this crime. Victims of sexual assault may experience complete loss of control, intense fear, physical abuse to the point of severe injuries and sometimes death, and may suffer from distinct psychological crisis reactions, such as hysteria and paralysis (Aldman, 1976; Baril, 1980; Brickman et al., 1980; Burgess et al., 1964 and 1974; Factor, 1954; Halleck, 1965; Katz et al., 1979; Nass, 1977; Notman, 1976; Saturansky, 1976; Symonds, 1976). This first stage is often followed by total helplessness, feelings of guilt and shame, withdrawal from social contacts and interactions, and decrease in self-esteem. At that point, involvement with the criminal justice system and other agencies (hospital, etc.) may accentuate such reactions (Carrow, 1979; Halpern, 1978; Holmes, 1981; Holmstrom et al., 1978). The insensitivity of investigation procedures (by police, doctors or lawyers), the inadequacy of helping resources, and the social prejudices associated with sexual assault, will enhance feelings of guilt, shame and low self-esteem (Holmstrom et al., 1978). Another stage may be characterized by avoidance behaviour, anxiety, depression, and suspicion toward members of the opposite sex. If victims of rape do not receive the necessary help in the very early stages of their post-crime contact with the CJS and other related agencies, they may have a particularly hard time overcoming these effects.

The needs of sexual assault victims. Sexual assault victims report the need for the following services, many of which are currently available from rape crisis centres (Carrow, 1979; Kinnon, 1981):

Short-term crisis intervention and support. These services are intended to reduce the immediate psychological trauma of the victim and to assist her in informing others (e.g., family or police) of the incident.

Advocacy and escort services. These services attempt to support the victim in her dealings with various institutions and agencies. For example, if she is injured or wishes to prosecute, the victim will require a medical examination. Such examinations can be very distressing under the circumstances, if not conducted with tact and understanding. The advocate can also assist the victim in proceeding to lay charges and in participating in court proceedings.

Long-term counselling. As with the crisis intervention service, long-term counselling is intended to reduce the victim's psychological distress associated with the assault. It may also involve the victim's family or friends to encourage their active participation in the victim's recovery.

At a broader, societal level, the most compelling need of sexual assault victims is for more sensitive and understanding treatment from the agencies she will have to deal with if she wishes to prosecute her assailant. This need could be met in a number of ways including crisis intervention training for police officers, the provision of specialized facilities and staff for required medical examinations and modifications to court procedures to make the process less threatening and humiliating for the victim. Some progress has recently been made in these areas, e.g. Ontario has developed a Sexual Assault Information Kit for use by police. As well, revisions to the Criminal Code sections covering sexual assault should improve the treatment which victims of these crimes receive in court.

Elderly Victims

A widely held view of the elderly as victims of crime is that they are relatively vulnerable to injuries due to their physical frailty, and that they suffer greater economic hardship from victimization due to their limited resources and (often) fixed incomes. The results of a number of studies including the Greater Vancouver Victimization Survey (Ministry of the Solicitor General, 1982) only partially supports this view. In particular, it was found that:

- The likelihood of elderly people (defined as those individuals 60 years of age and over) experiencing either personal or household victimization is quite low relative to younger people.
- Elderly victims reported comparatively few injuries.
- The average reported loss for elderly victims in the Vancouver study was almost double the amount reported by younger victims. At the same time, the amount recovered either directly or through insurance was greater for younger victims than for the elderly. These findings differ somewhat from those reported by American researchers (Cook et al., 1978).
- Despite their lower victimization rates, elderly people (both victims and non-victims) reported fear of crime in the dark hours more often than did younger people. This is particularly true for females.

A number of other effects of victimization have been identified for the elderly. They tend to isolate themselves, be more distrustful, modify their routine to the point of almost not going out and develop a negative attitude towards the police and the justice system (Burkhardt, et al., 1977; Clemente et al., 1976; Ernst et al., 1978; Gubrium, 1973; Lawton et al., 1976; Sundeen, 1976). Non-reporters, in particular, develop feelings of hostility and revenge (Ernst et al., 1978). Non-reporting is said to be principally caused by fear of retaliation and misunderstanding of justice practices. Elderly victims may also fear losing their meager revenue sources in the course of the investigation process (Sengstock, 1979; Hofrichter, 1978).

Most authors seem to agree that fear of crime may actually constitute a more serious problem for the elderly than actual victimization (Cook et al., 1976; Dussich, 1979; Goldsmith et al., 1977; Gubrium, 1974; Hahn, n.d.; Jaywardene et al., 1982; Kahana et al., 1977; Sundeen, 1976). Fear is a diffuse phenomenon which is not necessarily based upon a rational assessment of reality. The elderly living in the inner city may be particularly subject to such fears since their environment may be more criminalized and characterized by social problems. Moreover, these people may themselves have access to fewer financial resources and (in many cases) social contacts (Sundeen and Mathieu, 1976). These factors may combine to modify the elderly's behaviour and increase their loneliness, which in turn may enhance feelings of insecurity. This vicious circle, once established, could lead to depressive reactions. The cyclical nature of this process has not to date, however, been empirically demonstrated in the literature.

The needs of elderly victims. Among the documented needs of elderly crime victims are the following:

Outreach. Elderly victims, especially those who live in isolation, may need to be contacted specifically for the purpose of informing them of available services. Such a service should also strive to reduce the fear produced by the crime and reassure these people that someone in the criminal justice system is concerned about them (Culp and Calvin, 1977).

Emergency repairs. Elderly victims of break and enter, vandalism and other crimes resulting in damage to their residences may benefit from repair services aimed at securing their dwellings.

Compensation. Any eligible individual on a low or fixed income should be informed of the possibility of seeking compensation from appropriate agencies. Help could usefully be provided in filling out required forms and making necessary enquiries (Cook et al., 1978).

Counselling and emergency shelter. These services would be of benefit to elderly victims who have been particularly traumatized by their victimization. The counselling would help to reduce their fear and accelerate their return to normal. The emergency shelters would usefully be available to individuals who are reluctant to return immediately to their own residences. They would also be available as temporary refuges for elderly victims of family violence.

Information on crime prevention. Providing crime prevention information to the elderly may be particularly important. It is not clear, however, whether general campaigns aimed at both victims and non-victims are on balance beneficial. While the information may be of value, the risk is run that some individuals will simply be made more fearful without taking advantage of their new knowledge of crime prevention measures.

Native Victims

At present, no objective data are available on the needs of native Canadians as victims of crime. This information gap is, however, somewhat less pronounced for native offenders. If we can extrapolate from available offender data which shows that many incarcerated natives were convicted of offenses involving alcohol and violence, and assume that many victims of these offenses are also natives, then natives will likely be overrepresented in our victim population, as they are in our prison populations (Indian Crime and Justice Commission, 1977; Jilek and Roy, 1976). Certainly, native children are overrepresented in the statistics on child welfare and foster placement services (Robertshaw, 1981).

Limited availability of social services will also be a problem for native victims living in isolated communities. Where the population is sparse, it is not practical to provide the same range and level of services as are available in urban centres. Such availability and access problems may be exacerbated when responsibility for service delivery is not accepted actively by either the federal or provincial governments. One outcome of this situation is that the burden of meeting these needs (to the extent possible) falls to the local police.

Finally, the language and procedures of the justice system may be difficult to comprehend for native victims. As a result, these people may be unaware of available services and uncertain of how to access them even if they know of them. This problem is of course not unique to natives, but will be experienced also by members of other minority language ethnic groups.

The needs of native victims. The concerns discussed above suggest the need for the following:

Translation. When the victim does not speak or even understand the language of the police and/or the court, translation services could be made available.

Counselling and advocacy. The victim may, for reasons related to his cultural background, have a need for counselling and for advocacy in dealing with the criminal justice system.

Protection. A difficult problem is the situation of abused and native neglected children on reserves. At present, child welfare services provided by provincial ministries may not be available to status Indians on reserves. As a result, these children are not afforded the same formal protection as others who do not live on reserves (Robertshaw, 1981).

The absence of hard data on native crime victims precludes making definitive statements about their service needs. At issue as well is the much broader question of the nature of the relationship which native Canadians will, in the future, have with the mainstream society and the criminal justice system.

Rural Victims

Canada's rural victims of crime are another group whose service needs have not been systematically documented. The data available are also far from providing a complete picture of the impact of crime in rural areas. In fact, most studies concentrate on victimization rates and patterns, and only one was found that emphasized service delivery in rural areas (Davenport et al., 1979). Victimization studies, however, reveal that: (1) rural crime rates are lower than in metropolitan centres of more than 50,000 people but comparable to small towns of less than 50,000 people (Smith et al., 1979); (2) rural crime is mostly property crime and of a generally less serious nature (Smith, 1979; Smith et al., 1979; Lanson, 1982; Donnermeyer and Cox, 1981); (3) personal factors seem to play an important role (Smith, 1980) and affect reporting behaviour (Davenport et al., 1979; Philips et al., 1979). In fact, this last point is of considerable interest for both future research and service improvement. Whereas urban life is ananymous and reporting a crime is neither strongly limited by acquaintance with the offender or his family, etc., nor by the availability of other informal ways of handling the situation, such may not be the case in rural areas.

Considering the vastness of Canada and the relatively large number of citizens residing in small towns and rural areas, very few studies have been conducted on rural victims of crime. The National Urban Victimization Survey concentrated on major urban centres. Hopefully, rural residents' specific needs will be investigated before conclusions are drawn from urban victims' needs studies and urban models of service delivery are implemented in their areas.

II

AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON IMPACTS OF CRIME AND VICTIMS' NEEDS

A. GENERAL REFERENCES

Bard, M. The psychological impact of personal crime. In Viano E. (ed), Victim/Witness Programs: Human Services of the 80's. Alexandria, Va.: National Victim/Witness Resource Centre, 1980.

Society has begun to acknowledge the social and psychological costs associated with victimization. This article describes the post-victimization crisis of the victim. The self has been threatened, adversely affecting the functional integrity of the individual. The severity of stress is dependent on the nature of the crime. Typically, the victim moves through stages of impact, recoil, and reorganization. According to the model, personal crimes have a great impact because they represent, in some respects, the most direct of all threats to self. Effective crisis intervention can be achieved through recognition of the victim's varying states of mind: helplessness feelings, guilt and shame, anger.

Bard, M. and Sangrey, D. Crime Victim's Book. New York: Basic Books, 1979.

Focusing on the experience of being the victim of such personal crimes as mugging, rape, and robbery, this book traces the crisis victims face in regaining control of their lives. Beginning with the source of people's expectations about victimization (the myths and fantasies about crime that are played out in the media every day), the narrative moves on to crime itself, describing its immediate impact on the victim and exploring the meaning of the violation to the victim. Following a discussion of the three stages of the typical reaction to victimization and how the victim can best be supported at each stage, one of the most important facts of the recovery process -- the victim's search for a reason, an explanation of why the crime occurred -- is examined, along with the symptoms of self-blame which often accompany it. Subsequent sections deal with (1) the reactions of other people and reasons for them, and (2) the victim's own feelings of guilt and shame. The workings of the criminal justice system and the attitudes and values that victims often encounter in their dealings with the police and the courts are explained. The final section provides information about where and how victims should seek help, and it includes strategies for making the institutions that deliver those services more responsible.

Bard, M. and Sangrey, D. Things Fall Apart: Victims in Crisis. In *Evaluation and Change: Special Issue*. Minneapolis: Medical Research Foundation, 1980.

Victims of personal crime experience emotional stress which develops in three stages of varying length and intensity: (1) disorganization, (2) struggle, and (3) readjustment. The support of the police, doctors and friends is crucial for recovery. The severity of the victim's emotional reaction to personal crime depends on the degree of violation of the self (eg., an assault will usually precipitate a stronger crisis reaction than a purse snatching), and the capacity of each person to deal with stress. However, the kind of help the victim receives immediately after the crime is a crucial factor in influencing the severity of the stress as well as the chances of full recovery. Immediately after the crime or several hours later if the reaction is delayed, the victim will feel helpless, disoriented, and in need of support. The persons helping the victim should listen carefully to the victims' expression of his or her needs without imposing their own views. During the second stage, when the victim experiences and shows withdrawal and anger, friends and relatives can help by providing stability and reassurance. As a result, the victim will gradually be able to put the experience into perspective (the third stage) and resume normal life, even though the event can never be entirely forgotten.

Baril, M. Ils n'ont plus la liberté: réactions à la victimisation et ses conséquences. *Criminologie*, 1980, 13 (1), pp. 94-103. (Canadian)

The reactions of assault, rape, robbery, kidnapping, and burglary victims to their victimization are described in this French Canadian study. The victims, many of whom had been victimized several times, were interviewed and taped and included among others, 42 owners and employees of small businesses and 2 bank cashiers. All of the interviewed victims were haunted by fear which first manifested itself as paralysis, hysteria, or trembling during the offense, subsided only slowly, and lingered on as the fear of being victimized again. As a result, the subjects were difficult to approach and refused to discuss persons or places by name during the interviews. In their efforts to protect themselves against further victimization, the victims imposed severe limitations on their own freedom of action. Some had moved to a different location, one of the cashiers changed professions, and several others remained obsessed with security devices or arms. The interviews confirmed previous research findings that the victims (especially rape victims) suffered total helplessness and lack of control during the attack. Some even blamed themselves for having offered no resistance to the attacker. Most of the victims interviewed had experienced intensive contacts with the criminal justice system as a result of their victimization. They described the ensuing investigation and interrogration in highly negative terms likening this experience to a second victimization with comparable feelings of powerlessness.

Barkas, J.L. Victims. New York: Charles Scribner and Sons, 1978.

This portrait of crime victims provides a comprehensive study of how major crimes -- murder, rape, assault, and robbery -- affect their victims. Victims of crime, it is said, are not only the direct targets of the act, but also include friends, families and even mere witnesses. The author attempts to identify their plight, reveal how society revictimizes them, and underscore what must be done to protect their rights. The effects of crime on both the greater and lesser constituency are assessed through interviews with the primary and secondary victims of murder, rape, assault, and robbery. Aspects of victim interaction with the police, the courts, hospitals and morgues, and the largely indifferent public are examined.

Becker, C. The Victim and the Criminal Process. Background paper prepared for the Law Reform Commission of Canada, Ottawa, 1976. (Canadian)

This study aims at describing the range of phenomena experienced by crime victims and deriving therefrom an indication of the motivations and expectations which brought victims and offenders into the criminal justice system. Through direct interviews with victims and offenders who have gone through the criminal process, the study differentiates four types of victim-offender relationships which create different expectations and thus varying degrees of satisfaction. Therefore, for victims who were intimates or associates of the offender, the criminal justice process appears as particularly inadequate since it focuses upon adversarial confrontation, whereas this same characteristic will enhance a greater satisfaction for strangers. The report concludes by suggesting that criminal justice be realigned so as to avoid isolating the two parties.

Biles, D., Braithwaite, J. and Braithwaite, V. Mental Health of the Victims of Crime. International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 1979, 23 (2), pp. 129-134.

Results of an Australian national survey regarding the mental health of crime victims are reported and discussed. A questionnaire consisting of 285 items was administered to a sample of 18,694 persons throughout Australia. Two responses gave the number of visits to professional or other expert persons for nervous or mental health problems in the previous month and a self-rating of nervous or mental condition as good, fair, or poor. Victimization was reported for the following crimes: breaking and entering, motor vehicle theft, robbery with violence, theft, fraud, forgery, false pretenses, rape, attempted rape, nuisance calls, peeping tom offenses, indecent exposure, and assault. Responses to questions about mental health in relation to criminal victimizations show that rate of victimization was twice as high or greater among those who said their mental health was poor. Further, the 7.5% of the sample who reported a visit to a professional or other expert person during the previous month for nervous or mental health problems had experienced higher crime victimization rates. The data do not reveal whether being a crime victim precipitated the mental health problem or having a prior mental health condition contributed to the victimization. Emotional difficulties stimulated by highly traumatic offenses such as rape seems likely. However, with less traumatic crimes, such as breaking and entering, the stimulation of mental problems by the offense seems less plausible. In some cases, the lethargy, apathy, or irresponsibility associated with emotional problems could invite theft or fraud. Further data is needed to establish the validity of the foregoing theories.

Bourque, B.B., Brumback, G.B., Krug, R.E., and Richardson, L.D. Crisis Intervention: Investigating the Need for New Applications. Washington, D.C.: American Institute of Research, 1978.

In recent years, National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice-sponsored research has produced crisis intervention techniques to help police intervene more effectively in family disputes. In light of the success of family crisis intervention, this project's purpose was to investigate the possibility of using crisis intervention principles in other aspects of police work such as with robbery and burglary victims, and relatives of homicide victims. The study shows (1) that a relatively large number of robbery and burglary victims show evidence of serious crisis responses; (2) that, at least for burglary, the higher the degree of crisis, the lower the satisfaction with police response; and (3) that the more sensitive police officers are, the more satisfied are victims. The authors concludes with recommendation to enhance police response in crisis situations (referral service, training, etc.) and suggest some areas for future research.

Brickey, S.L. Winnipeg Victim/Witness Assistance Program: Planning Phase. Winnipeg, Institute for Social and Economic Research, 1982. (Canadian)

This report is an examination of victim and witness needs in the City of Winnipeg. Through the use of semi-structured interviews and questionnaires, data were collected on the nature and extent of those needs. Following a description of the types of needs that victims and witnesses experience -- and it must be noted that victims of property offences experience significantly different needs than victims of personal crimes -- a number of suggestions are offered on how these needs could be dealt with by a victim/witness assistance program.

Brown, S.D., and Yantzi, M. Needs Assessment for Victims and Witnesses of Crime. Kitchener: Mennonite Central Committee, 1980. (Canadian)

This report summarizes and discusses the results of a victim survey conducted in the Kitchener-Waterloo area. The authors concluded that most victims of crime in this area are able to find the kinds of help they require in the immediate and longer term period. In discussing the aftermath of their respective incidents, fully 68% of the sample could recall experiencing no unsatisfied needs at all. The vast majority of these people (84%) reported as well that they were not severely troubled by any of the adverse emotional reactions suggested to them. It would seem appropriate to conclude, therefore, that most victims of Kitchener-Waterloo do not require specialized victim services.

However, this is not to say that there exists no need for such services. Among the victims interviewed in this study, about one in three volunteered at least one need in the short term that was not satisfactorily handled, and about one in four volunteered at least one need in the long term that wasn't satisfactorily responded to. The kinds of needs mentioned in both periods pertained less to practical "hard" services than to needs for information and support.

Bucavalas, M.J. A Pilot Survey of Crime Victims in New York State. New York: Crime Victim Compensation Board, 1981.

Results of a survey of 450 crime victims in New York are summarized and discussed. The results indicated that the average comprehensive loss per victim exeeded $1,400. Two out of five victims surveyed also reported experiencing mental or emotional suffering as a result of the crime. In particular, fear was experienced by the elderly, minorities and the poor. The effect of victim assistance programs on these people are also examined and recommendations for program design and modification are suggested.

Carrington, F. The Victims. New York: Arlington House, 1970.

Heavily critical of the lenience, permissiveness and one-sidedness of the criminal justice system, the author argues for a system that will pay attention to the fate of victims, support its police, and consider criminals . . . as criminals. Through examples of this "faltering system" we now have the author demonstrates the plight of the victims in the hands of criminals as well as in the "justice" process. He concludes that victims must have recognized rights which will not be tried upon by defence attorneys. He also advocates a system where offenders will not be able to escape justice on mere technicalities.

Doerner, W.G., and Lab, S.P. Impact of Crime Compensation Upon Victim Attitudes Toward the Criminal Justice System. Victimology, 1980, 5 (1), pp. 61-67.

This study examines the impact of the Florida victim compensation program upon its clients and suggests that victims use cost-benefit analysis in deciding whether or not to file claims. The study used two groups drawn from the files of the Florida Crimes Compensation Commission. Only claims initiated and closed during calendar year 1979 were eligible for inclusion. The first group, applicants who received compensation, originally numbered 191 victims or 100% of all awards. The second group, applicants denied compensation, represented approximately a 50% sample of the 439 denials. Two hypotheses were examined: (1) applicants who received compensation will express more favourable attitudes toward criminal justice system personnel than applicants denied compensation: and (2) applicants who received compensation will be more likely to cooperate with criminal justice system personnel in the future than applicants denied compensation. Survey results showed that while compensated victims expressed satisfaction with the Crimes Compensation Commission, they were not similarly satisfied with other criminal justice system components. It would appear that victims are not satisfied with a system which, by mandating their cooperation, extracts certain costs and then fails to repay or compensate for these costs.

Du Bow, F., McCabe, E., and Kaplan, G. Reactions to Crime: A Critical Review of the Literature. Executive Summary. Washington, D.C.: US Department of Justice (LEAA), 1979.

This study reviews published and unpublished research on individual perceptions of crime, and individuals and collective behavioural reaction to crime. It provides a set of conceptions around which existing research findings can be organized and compared. Emphasis is given to the consistency or inconsistency of findings and to an identification of variables, areas of research, and methodologies which have received insufficient attention.

Evans, J., et al. Victimization in Greater Vancouver. Ottawa: Ministry of the Solicitor General, 1982. (Unpublished) (Canadian)

This report describes the results of a victimization survey conducted in Vancouver in 1979 as part of the forthcoming National Victimization Survey. A large random sample of adult residents of Vancouver were asked whether they had been victims of personal crimes (assault, sexual assault, robbery, theft of personal property) or household crimes (breaking and entering, vandalism, motor vehicle theft, or theft of household property) during 1978. The study addressed five major themes: (1) the extent and distribution of certain crimes; (2) the risk of criminal victimization; (3) the impact of criminal investigation; (4) public perception of crime and the criminal system; and (5) victims perceptions and needs.

Friedman, K., Bischoff, H., Davis, R., and Person, A. Victims and Helpers: Reactions to Crime. New York: Victim Services Agency, 1981.

The intent of this research is to investigate (a) the problems victims face as a result of the crime, (b) the sources of aid available to crime victims, (c) the extent to which they use informal social supports rather than formal assistance programs, (d) their knowledge of formal assistance programs, and (e) the consequences of their choices for themselves and their supporters, those people giving support to the victims. It was found that almost all victims interviewed suffer some form of problem, psychological (fear, anxiety, nervousness, anger, self-blame, typically shame and difficulty sleeping). Most of the victims received support from their social network (friends, relatives, family) with positive results. Yet this informal support network is rarely able to provide technical and legal assistance, and financial support was often burdensome for helpers. Finally, few victims knew of the existence of formal agencies. The authors conclude that not only do assistance programs need to be developed and initiate contact with victims, but that they can also contribute to the education and assistance of victim's informal support network.

Garofalo, J. Victimization and the Fear of Crime. Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 1979, 16 (1), pp. 80-97.

Using data from victimization and attitude surveys in eight American cities, the determinants of fear of crime are examined with attention to how the risk and experience of criminal victimization affect that fear. Five general factors were seen as affecting fear: (1) the actual risk of being victimized by a criminal act; (2) past experiences of being victimized; (3) the content of the socialization process connected with particular social roles; (4) the content of media presentations about crime and victimization; and (5) the perceived effectiveness of social barriers placed between potential offenders and victims. A zero-order correlation of coefficients between fear of crime and these factors indicates that the effects of the two role socialization variables -- age and sex -- are substantial, while perceptions of the relative dangerousness of one's neighbourhood also have a strong effect. Other indicators have a small effect on fear. Because it appears that fear of crime is not a simple reflection of the risk or experience of victimization, policy makers should not necessarily expect a major decrease in fear should crime be successfully reduced.

Garofalo, J.A., and Laub, J. The Fear of Crime: Broadening our Perspective. Victimology: An International Journal, 1978, 3 (1), pp. 242-253.

A conceptual framework linking fear of crime with a broader concern for the quality of life is developed, and policy implications are discussed. The findings of research on fear of crime indicate an ambiguous relationship between victimization and fear of crime, tendency not to perceive crime as an immediate threat, and a mixing of fear of crime with fear of strangers. These findings point to the conclusion that expressions of the fear of crime are more than reflections of anxiety about or actual experience with victimization. Society would be better able to deal with fear of crime were that fear viewed as an aspect of concern for community, which in turn is linked with the concept of quality of life. Such a conceptual framework provides a broader perspective yet remains consistent with empirical evidence on fear of crime. Within this framework, quality of life is determined both by objective circumstances, such as economic wealth, educational and cultural facilities, pollution, housing, and extent of crime and by subjective experiences, including (among others) concern for community (fear of crime, perceived social instability, anxiety about strangers, perceived moral decline, etc.) sense of personal achievement and perceived individual freedom. When fear of crime is viewed from this perspective, the search for solutions is led beyond the criminal justice system to encompass the entire social fabric of life, particularly urban life.

Giroux, J., and Huot, L. Le citoyen victime de vol qualifié: sa place dans le processus judiciaire. Montreal: Centre International de Criminologie Comparée, 1977. (Canadian)

This study, which completes the Grenier, Manseau and Lemire "Les petits commerçants victimes de vol à main armée," attempts to describe the justice system in practice. Through actual observation of the court process, interviews with the various officials, and interviews with victims of robbery, the authors demonstrate the paradoxical position of the victims: while they initiate the process by calling the police, they are left aside at the court level. In this sense, justice is an anti-social process: it discourages citizens from performing their duty of reporting crime and participating in the process, and it involves bargaining which the offender learns to benefit from. The report concludes that the victim must be given a new status which will provide respect and dignity.

Gottfredson, H.R., and Hindelang, H.J. The nature and correlates of physical injuries suffered by victims of personal crimes. Albany, N.Y.: Criminal Justice Research Centre, 1976.

This study examines the phenonenon of physical injuries suffered by victims of crime. Using a multivariate analysis technique, the study demonstrates that the outcome of the victim-offender interaction is dependent upon choices made by the actors, and not pre-determined by the presence of a weapon, like a gun. In fact, there appears to be more injury to victims when a weapon other than a gun is present. Also, whether or not the victim uses physical force is closely related to injury. When self protection measures are used the likelihood of property loss is reduced. Yet when self-protective physical force is employed, the victim runs a higher risk of being injured.

Heinzelmann, F. Summary of the Final Report on Victims and Witnesses: The Impact of Crime and their Experience with the Criminal Justice System. Marquette University, 1975.

This report summarizes the results of a survey of victims and witnesses conducted in Milwaukee, Wisconsin. The findings suggest that extensive victim/witness service programs are not needed by most victims and witnesses. What is needed is greater knowledge about and coordination of already existing community services, increased public and private agency willingness to service these client groups, designation of responsibility to some person or group for victim/witness concerns (probably with legal power), modifications in criminal justice administration and operational procedures for dealing with victims and witnesses, and increased desire by system personnel to respond to victim/witness problems. In addition, public agencies need to encourage and expand steps taken to make citizens more aware of their responsibility for their own vulnerability to crime. The data in this study suggest that a large percentage of victims are not protecting themselves as well as they can or should. This means that an increased emphasis needs to be placed upon actions that citizens can take to protect themselves and their property.

Hindelang, H., Gottfredson, H.R., and Garofalo, J. Victims of Personal Crime: An Empirical Foundation for a Theory of Personal Victimization. Cambridge, Ma.: Ballinger, 1978.

Based on extensive victimization survey data, a theoretical model for explaining differential risks of personal victimization is presented. Its central purpose is the analysis of survey results from several perspectives in order to provide an empirical foundation for a theory of personal victimization applicable to rape, robbery, assault, and larceny. An introductory chapter briefly reviews the relationship between demographic characteristics of survey respondents and rates of victimization. The strategy for analysis is then outlined: it suggests that an analysis using legal categories such as rape, robbery, and larceny is less informative than one which focuses on types of personal harm, regardless of legal categories. This approach is then used to explore in detail bodily injury to victims in personal crimes. The role of weapons, the victim-offender relationship, and the use of self-protective measures by the victim are analyzed in relation to an injurious outcome. Financial loss is then examined using a similar method. In another section, emphasis is placed on the characteristics of respondents that are differentially associated with risks of victimization in particular with multiple victimization. Various hypotheses about "victimization proneness" are tested and evaluated. Perceptions of the crime problem and their relationship to demographic characteristics and to victimization experiences are also explored. The final part of the book presents a theoretical model of personal victimization, explained as a function of personal characteristics.

Krupnick, J.L., and Horowitz, M.J. Victims of Violence: Psychological Responses, Treatment Implications. In Evaluation and Change. Special Issue. Minneapolis: Medical Research Foundation, 1980.

Victims of violent crimes may suffer from emotional after effects including depression, nightmares, inability to handle anger, intensified feelings of vulnerability and helplessness, and lowered self-esteem. Most persons are able to gradually deal with the traumatic ideas and feelings provoked by the assault. Some, however, will develop a stress response syndrome that is characterized by phases of intrusive thoughts and images, phases of ideational denial, and emotional numbing. A study of 13 victims in psychotherapy at a special centre for the treatment of stress response syndromes has shown that brief periods of therapy can be helpful. Since the trauma of the attack highlights and exacerbates previously existing conficts or maladaptive styles of coping, such therapy, by uncovering maladaptive cognitions and understanding individual responses, can help the victims regain a sense of control and self-esteem, and lead to psychological growth.

McDonald, W.F. (ed.) Criminal Justice and the Victim. Beverly Hills: Sage, 1976.

This collection of 12 articles on original research provides a well-documented and critically analytic look at that little-known role that the victim plays in the criminal justice system. All phases of the criminal process are examined. The important threshold decisions of the victim to activate the criminal process by reporting his victimization to the police is examined in four chapters from different perspectives. The victim's needs and perceptions as he cooperates with the prosecution are carefully documented. Also the victim's influence on the prosecution and outcome of the case is examined. Other chapters report on new programs for improving the treatment which victims receive from the police, prosecutors, and correctional experts as well as from the victim compensation commissions.

Meiers, D. Responses to Victimization. Abingdon: Professional Books, 1978.

This study deals with compensation schemes in Britain and Ontario. Accompanying the proliferation of these schemes since 1964, a considerable volume of literature has been published which tends to be uncritical. In fact, only now do some commentators begin to seriously question the philosophy and purpose of these schemes. Despite the seemingly overwhelming response in favour of compensating victims of crime, in reality many schemes including those in Britain and Ontario confer no right to compensation. The study suggests that the difficulty of defining criminal victimization had produced a stereotyped deserving victim having both social and political significance. In light of the many inconsistencies and inadequacies that both programs reveal, the study concludes that they are socially divisive and ought to be abolished altogether. A comprehensive accident compensation programme could then replace them.

Muir, J. Needs and Services for Crime Victims. Ottawa: Ministry of the Solicitor General, 1982. (Unpublished) (Canadian)

This report presents the results of a survey of victims, criminal justice personnel, and social service agencies working with victims in Calgary. The findings indicated that even though victim sampling was conducted within crime classification when victim needs might be evident, 44% of respondents reported that they had no needs following victimization or that help for their particular needs was readily available. Victims who did report needing services indicated that the following would have been helpful: someone to talk to following the incident, greater police attention to their case and information on where to get help. They also stated that they would have liked to have had access to information on the progress and outcome of their cases. Finally, court orientations and improved witness management were also suggested.

Norquay, G. and Weiler, R. Services to Victims and Witnesses of Crime in Canada. Ottawa: Ministry of the Solicitor General, 1981. (Canadian)

This study documents the emerging system of services to victims of crime in Canada, and assesses the impact of growing concern about victims on public and voluntary policies and programs.

The objectives of the study are:

1. to identify and analyse current trends and programs aimed at assisting crime victims in Canada;

2. to consider the relevance to the Canadian scene of key service trends and models of victim services evolving in other countries, particularly the United States; and

3. to identify possible adjustments to existing policies and programs relating to services for crime victims in Canada.

Based on a questionnaire survey of some 800 public and voluntary criminal justice and social development agencies, the study identifies five broad types of services to crime victims:

1. Services that deal with the crisis of victimization;

2. Services that assist victims and witnesses to participate effectively in the criminal justice system while protecting their rights;

3. Services aimed at compensating the victim for personal damages incurred as the result of a crime;

4. Services aimed at achieving restitution, reconciliation or both, between the offender and the victim;

5. Services that assist the victim to locate and use appropriate existing services.

The study identifies and assesses the prinicipal types of victim services that currently exist or are being developed within these five groups and makes suggestions for future policy and program development in the following areas: federal-provincial relationships; the need for a national focal point; crime compensation, federal funding mechanisms; provincial roles; local planning of services; and the role of police and victim rights.

Polish, J. Rehabilitation of the Victims of Crime: an Overview. UCLA Law Review. 1973. 21, pp. 317-355, 1973.

Rehabilitation of the offender is considered to be an important feature of criminal justice for it may effect, in the long term, the amount of crime. Rehabilitation of the victim, however, has only very recently been considered and nothing has been done yet on the national scene. Reviewing the legal basis and practice of the currently available remedies for victims, including compensation and restitution programs, the analysis concludes that they suffer from a number of limitations which impedes them from really helping the victims. A model program is proposed where the role of the state is extended to assure that the victim is restored to his former economic, physical, and emotional position. The role of the offender is also extended to make him responsible for the damages incurred by the victim. Until rehabilitation of the victim becomes a national goal concludes the article, the victim will remain a forgotten party.

Reiff, R. Invisible Victim. The Criminal Justice System's Forgotten Responsibility. New York: Basic Books, 1979.

A psychologist contends that crime victims are denied an equal share of justice. They are discriminated against by the police, the courts, the legal profession, and the social service systems. He argues that social justice requires society to take responsibility for making the victim whole again. Emergency financial assistance, medical care, and legal services are the rights of every victim and the moral obligation of society. The first study attempting to gather information about victims by actually operating a service for them was undertaken by the Center of the Study for Social Intervention in 1973. It found that the greatest need of victims is for immediate financial aid, followed by physical health care (including emotional care) and legal assistance. A nine-point victim's bill of rights is formulated, including provision for financial assistance and basic changes in the various components of the criminal justice and human service systems to implement their rights.

Rifai, M.A.Y. Methods of Measuring the Impact of Criminal Victimization Through Victimization Surveys. Paper presented at the Third International Symposium on Victimology, Munster, 1979.

Principal factors to be considered in measuring the impact of a criminal offense on its victim and the fear of potential criminal victimization are discussed. If adequate measurement and analysis are to be developed in victimization surveys, and in the field of victimology as a whole, three isses are paramount. First, more rigorous testing of victimization survey questions must be done prior to implementation. This testing must emphasize precision in terminology and the relationship of the question to the area of concern. Second, further study will be required to define the causes and manifestations of fear and the impact of criminal victimization. If the causes and manifestations can be defined, then the questions can be formulated to elicit the most useful responses. Third, it is necessary to validate empirically the assumptions of the consequences of victimizations. Only by empirical validation of these assumptions, and of the consequences of the fear of crime, can a logical analysis of victimization surveys be developed.

Searson, P.D. Crime Victim Needs and Services. Ottawa: University of Ottawa. Dept. of Criminology, 1982. (Canadian)

The purpose of this study was to understand and illustrate the needs of crime victims in the city of Ottawa; to assess the adequacy of existing services in meeting those needs; and from these findings make recommendations to improve victim services in this city. Data were gathered via personal interviews with 76 victims of break and enter, robbery and assault, and through a telephone survey of agencies providing services to victims. The results indicated that the victims surveyed suffered feelings of violation, helplessness, suspicion, nervousness, sleeplessness and anger. They also endured financial loss due to property damage, medical treatment, lost wages and transportation, and suffered physical pain from injuries received in the crime. Finally these victims experienced many inconveniences, and sometimes increased their use of avoidance behaviour. Many victims report that they relied on friends/family and existing agencies for emotional support, financial compensation and medical care. Beyond the help received, victims also requested emotional support and practical assistance as an immediate service and information on crime prevention, the progress of their case, their legal rights and crime compensation as long term services.

Sheleff, L.S., and Schichor, D. Victimology Aspects of Bystander Involvement. Crime and Delinquency, 1980, 26 (2), April, pp. 193-201.

Concepts from victimology are used to examine the role of bystanders who witness criminal offenses and ways they may be victimized by crimes as well as to suggest areas for future research. Bystanders may be harmed by direct, physical effects of the offense. They may be hit by stray bullets, held as hostages, or harmed by police in their efforts to apprehend the criminal. There is currently scant provision for compensation where the bystander is injured. Bystanders who deliberately become involved may be legally liable for damage they cause. A second type of harm is psychological harm: this may affect the bystander's attitudes and emotions. Longlasting psychological disturbances resulting from the trauma of witnessing a crime may include increased fear, anxiety, phobias, or change in self-concept. A third kind of harm may be produced by the bystander's involvement with the criminal justice system. Most bystanders are called to give evidence as witnesses to the crime. In addition to objective costs such as time, money and inconvenience, there may be subjective costs such as possible humiliation during a cross examination or other emotions and reactions. Recent articles have discussed the criminal justice system's indifference to witnesses. A recent study of witnesses' experiences showed that witnesses felt great frustration with their treatment. Long periods of waiting are especially frustrating. Psychological problems of perception, recall, and presentation also have been minimally studied. In some ways, witnesses have fewer rights than do the accused. Further research on all three types of potential harm to bystanders is needed.

Smale, G.J.A., and Spickenheuer, H.L.P. Feelings of Guilt and Need for Retaliation in Victims of Serious Crimes against Property and Persons. Victimology, 1979, 4 (1), pp. 75-85.

The intensity of victim's feelings of guilt and need for retaliation are described and related to other victim characteristics and some aspects of crime. The investigation sought to determine whether the feelings of guilt and the need for retaliation are different in intensity between victims of violence and victims of property crimes. A number of factors possibly related to the intensity of victims' feelings were also investigated: the seriousness of injuries and the extent of financial loss, fear of repetition, a history of previous victimization, the law-abiding or lawbreaking nature of the victim's own past, and the victim's age and profession. Victims selected were 100 Dutch males between 20 and 65 years of age. Half of them had suffered physical injuries from serious violent attacks: the other half had been victimized in a property offense with a loss amounting to at least $200. The offenders in all these incidents had been sentenced for these crimes. About 10 per cent of the victims admitted to strong, remaining feelings of guilt, while three-quarters of the remaining victims experienced no such feelings. Additionally, about 70 per cent felt that the judge's sentence had been too lenient. There was no clear relationship between feelings of guilt and need for retaliation. Strong feelings of guilt did not result in lesser need for retaliation, suggesting that moral indignation eclipses the effects of personal guilt. Property victims had stronger guilt feelings than violence victims. In the property group, guilt correlated with how well the offender was known to the victim. Lack of professional status, the amount of loss, and the victim's criminal record correlated with need for retaliation.

Stookey, J.A. Cost Theory of Victim Justice. In Galaway, B. and Hudson, J. (eds) Perspectives on Crime Victims. St. Louis, MO: Mosby, 1981.

This paper argues that society should be more concerned with the costs of victimization because of humanitarian concerns and such societal needs as social cohesion and support for the criminal justice system. Currently, the only responsibility the Government has to the victim is to apprehend, convict, and punish the offender. This retributive theory of criminal justice is, however, not sufficient to ensure justice for the victim. The cost theory postulates that in addition to controlled retribution, the social system is responsible for making the victim whole again -- returning him to his original economic, psychological, and physical state, if possible. The failure of society to meet these costs of victimization will lead to alienation and other negative consequences. To determine the net psychological and economic costs of crime, a statewide victimization study was conducted in Minnesota. A total of 700 victims, representative of the entire population of victims, were selected at random from police departments throughout the State and stratified by crime type (burglary, violence, and auto theft). The data indicated that the greatest cost burden of crime fell upon the lower income groups since insurance, often unavailable to the poor, is the only remedy that has a significant impact in reducing these costs. Two primary methods of implementing the cost theory of victim justice are currently available: restitution and compensation. Although the data indicated a potential for increased use of victim restitution, such an approach is clearly not the ultimate answer. The most obvious alternative would be a State-sponsored compensation program, such as that used in Minnesota, or a combined restitution/subsidized private insurance model.

Symonds, M. Acute Response of Victims to Terror. In Evaluation and Change, Special Issue. Minneapolis: Medical Research Foundation, 1980.

Victims of crime involving prolonged contact with the criminal, such as rape or kidnapping, undergo feelings of isolation and helplessness and require special treatment approaches that help them regain a sense of control and self-respect. As a result of being in a hostile environment and of feeling isolated and helpless, victims of such crimes as kidnapping develop traumatic psychological infantilism characterized by clinging to the persons who endanger their lives. They also develop pathological transference, i.e., gratitude towards the criminal for not killing them combined with hostility towards those who try to free them. Therefore, rescue efforts should never include the cooperation of the victims. After the release, treatment approaches are needed which should include availability of privacy without isolation and methods of nurturing and restoring a sense of power and control.

B. SPECIFIC CRIME TYPES

1. Burglary and robbery

Grenier, H., and Manseau, H. Les petits commerçants victimes de vol à main armée en quête de justice. Criminologie, 1979, 12 (1), pp. 57-65. (Canadian)

The effects of armed robberies on owners and employees of small businesses in Montreal (Canada) are assessed on the basis of 40 semistructured interviews. Robbers are usually nervous novices between 15 and 25 years of age. Because of the briefness and intensity of the hold-up situation, no regular patterns are evident. Small merchants are particularly vulnerable because of the late hours which they must keep to be competitive and because of family involvement in the business. Damages from such crimes include loss of money, bodily injuries, psychological trauma, and costs for alarm systems as well as other security measures. According to the study findings, victimized merchants view their experiences with the court system very negatively, feeling that the criminals are treated better than they are and resenting their loss of time and money. Victims support increased penalties, although sanctions are considered rehabilitative measures rather than punishment. Crimes of juveniles and offenders by circumstance are regarded with tolerance. The extent of merchants' pessimism is dependent on the number of times they have been held up and the duration of their contact with the criminal justice system.

Maguire, M. The Impact of Burglary upon Victims. British Journal of Criminology, 1980, 20 (3), July, pp. 261-275.

This article provides a detailed account of people's reactions to becoming the victim of a burglary and considers some of the ways in which these effects might be alleviated. It is based upon interviews with 322 victims of burglary, the majority of which took place four to ten weeks after the burglary was reported. Victims were asked to recall the initial impact as well as the effect upon their lives during the intervening period. It was discovered that the most common reaction was one of anger or annoyance, followed by shock and general emotional upset, as an initial reaction with only a few (17%) reporting no strong reaction. More women than men reacted with shock, fear or upset, while men were rather angry. More fundamental is the discovery that 65% of the victims reported lasting effects. The most common persisting effects were a general feeling of unease or insecurity and a tendency to keep thinking about the burglary. Also present were a tendency to search for reasons and a disillusionment with humanity. The most striking long-term psychological effect was experienced almost exclusively by women, and relates to a violation of intimacy. Also notable is the fact that working class widows were the most seriously affected, specially if over 60. Finally, the conclusion drawn from the answers about what victims wanted from the police was that they were much less concerned with seeing an offender arrested than with receiving what they regarded as the appropriate response to the incident: a routine investigation coupled with a sympathetic attitude and a willingness to listen to their fears.

Pope, C.E. Crime-Specific Analysis: The Characteristics of Burglary Incidents. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977.

In this report, the characteristics of burglary incidents that occurred in six separate police jurisdictions over a one-year period are examined. Data for this study were derived from a crime-specific burglary program sponsored by the California Council on Criminal Justice and obtained from the California Bureau of Criminal Statistics. During this period, data were compiled on 8,137 burglary offenses and included such information as type of structure burglarized, time of day, day of week, amount of financial loss, and similar factors. In this first of three reports, attention is given to recurrent patterns found among incident characteristics. Major findings include the following: burglary losses were generally of moderate value and included goods easily converted into cash: most burglaries involved some degree of forcible entry which was more likely to occur in non-residential structures: and residential burglaries were most likely to occur during the week and during the day, while non-residential burglaries were more likely to occur on weekends and at night. Deterrent features such as artificial lighting or security inspections were not found to be related to the probability of a burglary being cleared or to whether a burglary was completed or only attempted. When study findings were compared with those of other burglary studies, the characteristics of burglary incidents were found to be similar regardless of geographic areas.

Reppeto, T.A. Residential Crime. Cambridge, Mass.: Ballinger, 1974.

Examines the residential crime problems of robbery and burglary in terms of the offender, his victim, and his environment and recommends models for the control of residential crime. Robberies and burglaries occur more frequently than other crimes between strangers on residential premises. Further, the rate at which these crimes are committed is apparently increasing substantially, both nationally and for the Boston Metropolitan areas, the locale for this study. These facts cited in the book's introduction inject urgency into the findings and recommendations that follow. As the author examines three components of the residential crime program -- the offender, his environment, and his victim, with the goal of establishing more effective control strategies for residential burglaries and robberies, this study seeks to identify, describe, and interpret in a systematic and quantitative manner, the rates and patterns of these crimes and their correlation with key variables. Information used in the study was obtained from a literature search, an analysis of criminal justice records pertaining to residential crime, interviews with nearly 1,000 victims of residential robberies and burglaries and an audit of the security aspects of their residences, a study of the comparative security features of 39 selected geographic areas and detailed interviews with an analysis of the criminal history of 97 persons convicted of burglary. Four models for control of residential crime are developed from the data. The criminal justice model relies upon police patrol and investigation to determine, detect and apprehend offenders while the court and correctional agencies punish and rehabilitate. The social control model is based on strong territorial concern by neighborhood residents which acts as a deterrent to potential offenders. The limited access model uses physical arrangements to limit access to residents and persons who can pass a security check. The fourth model is the distance model characterized by the location of residences away from the uban core problem areas. Data instruments and statistical tables are included in the appendices.

Waller, I., and Okihiro, N. Burglary: The Victim and the Public. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1978. (Canadian)

The realities of the burglary experience are examined, with a view to prevention and improving the way society reacts in this analysis based on personal interviews in some 1600 households. Interviews were also conducted with convicted burglars to examine how they chose particular residential targets, why they broke in, and what type of goods they sought. In all, three major questions were addressed -- how often, where and in what manner do residential burglaries occur in Metropolitan Toronto -- to determine the reactions and losses of victims, the public experience with the justice system, and the public's attitudes on crime and punishment. The data indicate that residential burglary is typically a minor offence, committed by an amateur, and involving relatively small property loss, with rarely a threat or actual harm. Further, of the 3 residences in 100 that are burglarized, more than 1 of 3 will go unreported to the police. It was also found that more than 10 per cent of the population admits to committing burglary, that residences are more likely to be burglarized in areas where there are proportionately more young unmarried males and where affluent persons are living near the poor. Burglary was found to be more likely if a residence is left unattended during the working week and if entrances are not easily visible to neighbours.

2. Wife abuse

Borland, M., (ed) Violence in the family. Atlantic Highlands, New Jersey: Humanities Press, 1976.

A collection of papers is presented by members of various professions concerned with battered wives and children. The papers give a picture of the different views and aims of some of the professionals and organizations who deal with the phenomenon of physical violence in the family. Similarities and differences between violence directed toward children and that directed toward women and varying approaches to each problem are shown throughout. A psychiatrist explains what sort of people are likely to vent their aggression on those nearest to them and why. Factors such as drugs and alcohol which may contribute to the incidence of various types of abuse are examined. A sociologist reviews societal conceptions of violence. A pediatrician identified typical injuries and other symptoms which may indicate that a child has been abused. An official of the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty of Children describes the organization and the way it approaches the problem of child abuse. A lawyer examines the protection available and remedies open to children and spouses who are being subjected to physical violence. A pyschologist focuses on the problems of battered wives -- the extent of the problem, the social backgrounds of battered women, effects on their children, and women's legal position, the attitudes of society, and services available to the woman. A police superintendent describes the role of the police in dealing with domestic violence. Finally, a social worker examines the obstacles to better cooperation between the agencies concerned with the problem.

Breton, M. Nurturing abused and abusive mothers -- The hairdressing group. *Social Work with Groups*, 1979, 2 (2), pp. 161-174. (Canadian)

An attempt to apply the small group approach to the prevention and treatment of child abuse is described in terms of its rationale and its implementation with one group of Canadian women. Goals of the project were to overcome two major problems of abusive parents: social isolation and inability to seek out help for themselves and their children. Based on research indicating that abusive parents lack nurturing skills, hairdressing and serving lunch were chosen as ways to provide nurturing for women, thereby helping them to learn nurturing rather than abusive behaviour. All the women were emotionally, financially and socially deprived and had children who had been physically abused. During the early group sessions, the leaders assumed clear parenting, caregiving, and nurturing roles, encouraging the women to regress to the child role until they indicated that they were ready to start giving. Leaders reinforced, and encouraged other-centered behaviour in the mothers. The group workers current goal is to re-orient the group systematically toward becoming a mutual aid system. Whether this will be accomplished is not certain, but significant benefits of the methods have already been demonstrated.

Cadieux, A. *Le phénomène de la femme battue: une bibliographie canadienne / Wife Battering: A Canadian Bibliography*. Ottawa: Conseil consultatif canadien de la situation de la femme / Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women, 1980. (Canadian)

This bibliography of Canadian references in wife battering contains some 300 entries from books and booklets, journals and newspaper articles, bibliographies, conferences, and forthcoming research.

Canada. *Report on Family Law*. Ottawa: Law Reform Commission of Canada, 1976.

Canada. *Minutes of Proceedings and Evidence Respecting Inquiry into Violence in the Family*. Ottawa: Standing Committee on Health, Welfare and Social Affairs, 1982. (Canadian)

These documents comprise the minutes of the Committe's hearings and briefs submitted by individuals invited to address the Committee. Among those who spoke to the committee were representatives of women's rights organizations, agencies involved with transition houses, the legal profession and the research community. The coverage of these documents is extensive, and includes consideration of legal, social, financial and jurisdictional issues.

Canada. Report on Violence in the Family - Wife Battering. Ottawa: Standing Committee on Health, Welfare and Social Affairs, 1982. (Canadian)

This report summarizes the findings of the Committee with respect to the problem of wife battering. Sections are devoted to the needs of battered women in relation to: the police, the courts, emergency shelter, welfare and the attitudes of professionals who deal with battered wives. The report concludes with recommendations in the areas of: police training, funding for shelters, treatment for batterers, research needs, public education and legal jurisdiction over family matters.

Chapman, J.R. and Gates, N. (eds) Victimization of Women. Beverly Hills: Sage, 1978.

This anthology considers aspects of violence, sex and power as they relate to the physical, sexual and psychological victimization of women. The selection of articles for this volume was guided by the premise that the abuse of women and female children in our society is the natural result of a sexist social order. Female victimization, treatment modalities, and prevention techniques are discussed by contributing practitioners, planners and policy-oriented professionals concerned with discovering and destroying the causes of the various abuses. Manifestation of the male role in the victimization of women is examined and aspects of rape are explored with respect to offenders, victims, counselling/advocacy services, and rape law. The sexual abuse of children is discussed, with attention to problems in defining and identifying abuse. Consideration of the problem of battered women includes historical attitudes toward women, the failure of the legal system, the inadequacies of social services, social bias, changing police attitudes, remedial legislation, and emergency shelter care.

Chimbos, P.D. Marital Violence: A Study of Interspouse Homicide. Palo Alto, Cal.: R and E Research Associates Inc., 1978. (Canadian)

Interviews with 34 men and women who had killed their legal or common law spouses are the basis of an analysis of the social conditions and marital conflicts that lead to lethal violence between spouses in Canada. Demographic data show that women are less likely than men to kill their spouses, that most respondents had relatively little schooling and held unskilled or semiskilled jobs, and that common law marriages are more likey to terminate earlier in lethal violence that are legal marriages. Economic pressures appear not to be relevant factors in lethal violence between spouses. Processes and events leading to interspouse homicide -- the actor's life experiences and circumstances, the marital relationship and conflicts, and the structuring of the violent situation -- are traced, and a model describing both historical/background and situational/ immediate elements in lethal violence between spouses is developed. Early life experiences that can predispose people to violent behaviour in their marriages include unsatisfactory or frustrating relationships with parents and the learning of violent reactions. Study findings indicate that spouse killings tend not to be sudden, unanticipated outbursts of rage. In mosts cases, the murder was the endpoint of a series of quarrels over extra-marital affairs or sexual refusals, temporary separations, previous physical fights, and heavy drinking by both offender and victim (particularly at the time of the fatal act). It is theorized that a person who has long been threatened or abused in some way by his or her spouse reaches a point when the abuse is no longer tolerable. At this point, the threatened party enters a mental state referred to as encapsulation, in which restraint and future-oriented thoughts are replaced by seizing upon simple, immediate, often violent solutions. Encapsulation is facilitated by intoxication and by the absence of persons with intervening capability. Implications of these and other findings for prevention of interspouse violence are discussed.

Connick, E. The Experience of Women with Services for Abused Spouses in New York City. New York: Victim Services Agency, 1982.

This study on the situation of abused wives and their use of services concludes that these women are not passive and helpless but search for health and are conscious of their situation. The services they receive however (police, medical, legal) are just beginning to develop sensitivity to the needs of battered women. This report describes the population of abused spouses who attempt to make use of governmental and private services in New York City; identifies some of the characteristics of these women; examines the responses of existing services to abused women; and suggests directions for future program development. It is shown that most of the 122 interviewed women had been abused for more than a year, and that their financial dependency is the main reason for them to stay in this situation. Of those who went to the police, most thought that the police were not responsive to their needs; the women were most satisfied when an arrest was made. Police and medical staff alike could make more use of training to develop more sensitivity to the needs of battered women. As for courts, it seems that the most successful way for women to obtain some reduction of violence is when they have severed the relationship with the offender. Finally, with regards to counselling, shelter and public assistance, the data indicate that professional counselling is needed (relatives and friends being skeptical when the women talk to them), that shelters are not numerous enough, and that a long-term strategy to help abused women is to provide employment possibilities since most of them are on public assistance.

Corfman, E., (ed) Family Violence and Child Abuse. Rockville, Md: US Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1979.

Three papers on family violence and child abuse focus on physical violence in families, child abuse research, and treatment approaches for abused children and their families. One paper presents the findings of a nationwide survey on family violence in the United States based on data gathered in 1975. Results reveal the extent of violence against children by parents and between husbands and wives. During the survey year, approximately 1.7 million children suffered from varying degrees of parental abuse. Moreover, the incidence of severe abuse is much higher than previously reported and is probably higher than the survey findings indicate because family violence seems to be accepted as a cultural norm, particularly in the form of wife abuse. If the survey's findings are generalized to all U.S. couples, they indicate that approximately 1.8 million wives are severely attacked by their husbands at least once a year. Although violence by wives against husbands also appeared in the survey's findings, such violence is less significant than wife abuse. Theories of violence and strategies for its elimination are also considered. Another paper discusses the history of child abuse and clinical and scientific interest in the subject. Clinical observations and studies cited in the paper point out the fate of abused children, characteristics of abuse, their sexual problems, their tendency towards violence as parents, and preventive measures. A third paper describes treatment approaches to child abuse and diagnostic techniques. Typologies of families with children who are victims of "nonaccidental injury" and victims of "failure-to-thrive" are outlined so that such families can receive appropriate therapy and child placement decisions can be more easily made.

Dobash, R.E. and Dobash, R.P. Love, Honour and Obey. Institutional Ideologies and the Struggle for Battered Women. Contemporary Crisis, 1971, 1 (4), October, pp. 403-415.

The problem of battered women is seen as a function of a structure and ideology which support wife beating and the oppression of women in marriage. Assistance for women in England is described. The "discovery" in England of the problem of battered wives, the inception of women's aid (WA) groups and the institution of shelters and services for battered women as outgrowths of the women's movement are detailed. The maintenance of a hierarchical, patriarchal ideology provides a framework within which physical coercion is an appropriate means of controlling wives; the framework extends outside of the marriage and accounts for problems faced by women who struggle to curtail wife beating through interaction with the police, courts, and social service agencies. Examples of resistance encountered by Britain's WA's are cited. The contradiction of simultaneously protecting the sanctity of the home and family and protecting wives from being battered is explored.

Dobash, R. and Dobash, R. Wife Beating. Still a Common Form of Violence. Social Work Today, 1977, 9 (2), November, pp. 14-17.

Case studies and statistics drawn from police/court records in Glasgow and Edinburgh, Scotland, are the focus of a discussion of wife beating. Research supported by the Scottish Home and Health Department to determine the nature and extent of wife beating is taking two tacks: indepth interviews with women who have been assaulted by their husbands and examination of police and court records. Three case studies drawn from 1974 records in Glasgow and Edinburgh illustrate several aspects of wife beating, injuries often are severe enough to require medical attention; most assaults occur in the home; and the most common form of attack is repeated blows to the head and body with fists and feet. Statistics from the same records show that, while few cases handled by the police involve violence of any kind, 34.5 per cent of the violent cases involve family members. Most (72.7 per cent) cases involve assaults by husbands on wives, with assaults on children accounting for 11 percent and assaults on parents 7 percent. Clearly the family member most likely to be assaulted is the wife and the least vulnerable is the husband. There are indications that many incidents of wife beating go unreported. Several factors in assaults by husbands on wives have emerged from interviews with battered wives. It appears that wife beating, like other violent behaviour, is learned. Supported by society's view of women and wives as appropriate victims, men come to believe that they should control their wives and that violence is one means of maintaining or regaining control. There exists a need both to provide for the immediate needs of battered women and to work on a long-term basis to improve the status of women in marriage and in society.

Dobash, R.E. and Dobash, R.P. Wife. The 'Appropriate' Victims of Marital Violence. Victimology, 1978, 2 (3-4), pp. 426-442.

The historical processes which aid in the understanding and explanation of wife abuse are presented, along with evidence of documenting the prevalence and predominance of violence directed at wives. A historical analysis of spouse abuse is detailed, illustrating the interrelationship between this and other social processes and institutions. The authors claim that wifebeating is not deviant, aberrant, or pathological -- it is an act which is acceptable in a patriarchical society. In this context, wifebeating is defined as the use of physical force, with the intention of inflicting pain on or even killing one's wife. Wifebeating dates back to Roman laws of patriarchy, when it was considered to be a moral imperative or subordination. These acts of violence continued through the middle ages and beyond. In English Law, practices during the colonial period, no laws were made on wifebeating, but in the 1800's it was made illegal in some states. New legislation against it soon followed in Britain. Statistics show that a substantial portion of homicides and violent assaults by men were committed against their wives, sweethearts or mistresses. A study in Scotland presented the same conclusions. Some interviews with women who were abused are examined. The authors conclude that most wives are abused as a result of challenge to the male's possession, authority and control over them.

Dobash, R.E., and Dobash, R.P. With Friends Like These Who Needs Enemies -- Institutional Supports for the Patriarchy and Violence Against Women, 1978.

This paper discusses problems encountered by battered women in getting help from social agencies, doctors, courts, and police, and the effects of common social attitudes about wife beating. Battered women or their husbands rarely report wife-beating incidents due to shame, guilt, and fear. Although social agencies and police can offer much-needed help, they are often indifferent or suspicious of battered women. Doctors often do not want to become involved because they are too busy or lack holistic counselling skills. Psychiatrists, accepting the norm of male dominance and female submission, often view wife beating as provoked by women who refuse to be submissive or who want to be victimized. Further, since women play an important part in forming a child's character, they are often blamed for the childhood personality deficiencies that eventually lead to adult violence. Thus, psychiatrists may unwittingly justify or help others justify wife beating, including those who seek their help in escaping it. Beleaguered social agencies often ignore battered women since the problem does not affect large numbers of people. Social workers themselves are often unsympathetic to battered wives; their training teaches them to detach themselves from their clients. They accept traditional pyschiatric opinion about women, or consider violence a part of life for certain groups of people. Police, because they are inadequately trained or encouraged not to interfere in family problems, do not often arrest wife beaters or consider such assaults crimes unless the wife incurs serious bodily harm. They do not wish to invade the sanctity of the home, believing the wife will not press charges.

Dobash, R.E., and Dobash, R.P. Violence Against Wives: A case against the patriarchy. New York: Free Press, 1979.

Based on British, European, and American sources, this volume presents the historical origins of wife abuse, demonstrating that it is a form of the male's domination through a socially approved marital heirarchy. It gives a grim account of patriarchal beliefs and practices in Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and American traditions that have supported the right of a husband to dominate and chastise his wife. The forms and frequency of violence are analyzed, along with the role of family, friends, and neighbours. The alternatives available to the abused wife through the police, judges, psychiatrists, and social workers are evaluated, and their failures in helping the victims are discussed. Numerous interviews of battered wives completed during 5 years of research are presented to illustrate the plight of these women for anyone concerned with the problem. In addition, the status of women during the early capitalist period through the rise of Protestantism is detailed, as well as the legal history of chastisement. Among the recommendations proposed to stem the wife abuse problem is the establishment of refuges for battered wives which would serve as a mdoel of constructive response to the problem. All members of society should condemn wife abuse, reject the authority of husbands over their wives, and attempt to change the power relationships between them.

Dobash, R.E., Dobash, R.P., Cavanagh, C., and Wilson, M. Wife-Beating. The Victims Speak. Victimology, 1978, 2 (3-4), pp. 608-622.

As part of a study on violence in Scotland, indepth interviews were conducted with 109 women who were victims of assault by their husbands. Three of these interviews are excerpted. A semi-structured interview technique was developed which permitted a systematic framework for examining the dynamics of violent events, while allowing each woman to focus on the concrete events in an experimental context that made sense to her. The short excerpts of three episodes of wife-beating as experienced by three women illustrate both the interview technique and some of the major findings of the study. The first excerpt recounts the first violent episode in a marriage; the second and third recount the worst incident. In each account, the factors leading up to the incident, the nature and extent of the assault, and the events immediately following the event are presented. The first assault is usually less severe than subsequent ones, although it is so shocking to the women that some subjects could recall it vividly after 20 years of abuse. It was often difficult for the women to select a "worst" incident. They had sustained so many attacks and injuries that for many the choice was made from among many similar events. In addition to the extent of injuries, social factors such as public humiliation or a holiday were often important in the selection. The last assault before the women sought shelter from Woman's Aid was sometimes the worst. However, for many women, the last assault was much like previous assaults but marked a change in their determination to escape the situation. Confrontations preceding violence usually involved diputes relating to the husband's jealousy, the wife's domestic duties, or finances. Accounts continually illustrate that the woman is viewed as a possession of the husband and therefore subject to even his most unreasonable attempts at control. The wife is seen, both by the husband and others, to have obligations to provide domestic services and to be subordinate to him.

Downey, J. and Howell, J. Wife Battering. A Review and Preliminary Enquiry into Local Incidence, Needs and Resources. Vancouver, B.C.: United Way of the Lower Mainland, 1976. (Canadian)

A review of the literature on family violence, with specific attention to the physical abuse of wives, and a study of its incidence, needs, and resources in British Columbia are presented. The report reviews various theoretical positions and conceptualizations of violence and focuses on the complex interplay of social and psychological variables associated with violence in marital interaction. The incidence of physical abuse is dealt with through a review of studies of homicide, divorce, and non-lethal assault statistics. Results from a survey of Greater Vancouver agencies asked to estimate incidence for a period of 6 months are reported and discussed. In addition, an attempt is made to explore the link between alcohol use and wife battering. A number of theories regarding this association are discussed, and studies of incidence relating alcohol to violence are reviewed and compared with local findings. The needs of the battered wife are identified from the perspective of both services requested by women and those offered and considered necessary by available resource agencies. Availability and utilization of services is discussed, as well as impediments to effective implementation of services. Based on the findings from the literature review, the preliminary survey, and a discussion of research methodology, specific recommendations for future research and improvement of local services are made. An annotated bibliography of the papers and books referred to throughout the report is appended.

D'Oyley, V., (ed) Domestic Violence: Issues and Dynamics. Toronto: The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1978. (Canadian)

This publication is organized into eight main areas: an overview of domestic violence; the role of the police; the role of the judicial system; male/female relationships in domestic violence and education; social services and institutional comments; and a bibliography on battered wives. Special emphasis is put on the impact of family violence on children in the school setting. Also included are the recommendations from the Toronto Conference (March 1977).

Dutton, D.G. The Criminal Justice System Response to Wife Assault. Ottawa: Ministry of the Solicitor General, 1982. (Unpublished) (Canadian)

This study reviews current practices, policies and programmes which comprise the justice system's response to wife assault. The reluctance of police, Justices of the Peace, Crown attorneys, judges and juries to respond to wife assault as a serious crime is discussed. Evidentiary and other legal issues are also reviewed. It is concluded that arrest rates for wife assault may be too low and that police often do not arrest even when sufficient evidence is present for charges of assault. Furthermore, police often do not file reports on wife assault cases even though Justices of the Peace require police reports before laying an information. Attitudes of some Crown prosecutors and judges contribute further to the tendency of the criminal justice system to treat wife assault leniently. Recommendations are made for changes in attitudes and actions of criminal justice personnel in order to provide adequate protection for assaulted women. The study also described a variety of system models for responding to wife assault and discusses the advantages and disadvantages of each. Finally, treatment programmes for wife assaults are described and an appendix lists studies which would provide a sounder empirical basis for future policy.

Field, M., and Field, H. Marital Violence and the Criminal Justice Process: Neither Justice Nor Peace. Social Service Review, 1973, 42 (2), June, pp. 221-240.

A concise discussion of the limited response of police, prosecutors, and courts to family violence. Civil alternatives are suggested.

Gammon, H.A.B. Violence in Canada. Agincourt, Ontario: Methuen, 1978. (Canadian)

Violence in Canada is presented from different perspectives in a collection of essays covering rape, child abuse, domestic violence, violence and the media, and the origins of violence. All of the essays include short bibliographies and many include charts and tables.

Gelles, J.R. Violence in the American Family. In Martin, J.P. (ed). Violence in the Family. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

The extent of family violence in the United States, contributing causes, and public response are discussed. A 1976 study based on interviews with a representative sample of 2,146 American families shows preliminary results indicating that violence between family members is a widespread phenomenon in the United States. Attention to the problem has increased since the 1960's, when violence erupted in the assassinations of public figures and civil rights

conflicts, and domestic violence received special attention under the influence of the women's and children's rights movement. Although the current level of research into family violence is far from producing a conclusive theory of its causes, there are numerous structural and social-psychological variables which interact to increase the likelihood of violence occurring in an American family. The structural arrangement of American society which produces social inequity between classes of individuals and between the sexes, together with the existence of norms favourable to the use of violence in solving problems, is believed instrumental in stimulating the relatively high level of family violence in the United States. Although the issue of violence in the home has attracted considerable attention from the mass media, politicians, and social service personnel, the actual causes and possible solutions to the problems have not been addressed effectively. Law enforcement personnel and the courts are reluctant to intervene in domestic conflicts. The social service system has ignored serious facets of family violence, evidenced by the fact that in 1976 there were only six functioning shelters for battered wives in the entire country. Positive indications of increased state and federal attention to the problem are noted, however.

Gelles, R.J., and Straus, M.A. Determinants of Violence in the Family: Toward a Theoretical Integration. In Burr, W.R. et al. (eds) Contemporary Theories about the Family. New York: Free Press, 1979.

Several theories of violence as applied to family violence, are integrated in an overall theoretical diagram and determinants of physical violence within the family are discussed. Prior to 1971, there was little research on family violence. Recent research has shown that physical violence between family members is a normal part of family life in most societies and in American society in particular. Unique characteristics of families call for a special theory of intrafamily violence, as compared to simply assuming that more general theories of violence automatically apply to the family. The factors which require a special theory include the high level of violence in the family, and special characteristics such as intensity of commitment toward family members. From the 15 theories of violence which are evaluated, it is possible to construct a theoretical integration of applicable elements in diagram form including elements of psychopathology, frustration-aggression, structural and intrafamily resource theories. The major limitation of the resulting integration is that it does not show feedback loops which are likely to be present and does not contain any provision for cybernetic control of the system. However, it does bring a certain level of clarity to the subject of intrafamily violence and establishes a basis for a more detailed and specific theory.

Gerson, L.W. Alcohol-Related Acts of Violence. Who Was Drinking and Where the Acts Occurred. Journal of Studies in Alcohol, 1978, 39 (7), pp. 1294-1296. (Canadian)

A study of 1,790 alcohol-related violent acts in the Hamilton-Wentworth region of Ontario, Canada, found most were marital or other common assaults, the former usually occurring in a private residence. All alcohol-related violent incidents handled by the police between November 1976 and October 1977 were studied to determine who had been drinking, and the places in which the violent events occurred. Of the 1,790 incidents, 411 were marital assaults and 892 were other common assaults. Almost 90% of the marital assaults occurred in the home while the common assaults occurred almost anywhere -- 240 in establishments licensed to sell alcohol, 398 in residences, and 254 in various other places. There were 148 assaults with injury, 74 assaults of peace officers, 47 threatening acts that were marital, 3 sexual assaults other than rape, 29 rapes, 9 homicides, and 150 threatening acts that were not marital. Both parties were implicated in drinking in many instances. In 632 cases the offender alone had been drinking, in 521 the victim had been drinking, and in 637 both had been drinking. In nearly three-fourths of the common assaults, either the victim only, or both had been drinking. This was also the case with rapes and sexual assaults.

Gibbens, T.C.N. Violence in the Family. Medico-Legal Journal, 1975, 43 (3), pp. 76-88.

Different types of family violence are explored, and characteristics of both offenses and offenders are discussed. Four types of violence in the family are noted: (1) fatal violence by husbands against their wives; (2) fatal violence by fathers against their children, with or without wives being included in the violence; (3) violence by wives against their children and occasionally violence against their husbands; and (4) violence between siblings in a family and sometimes violence by children against their parents. A major problem in evaluating these types of violence is whether there is a continuous gradation between minor aggression and violence and major cases that reach the courts. Origins of aggression and violence are complex. Aggression has been considered primarily as the outcome of frustration, and many kinds of frustration exist. On the other hand, it is theorized that aggression can be learned behaviour. After about 3 years of age, the incidence of child battering by mothers appears to become less, and abuse is much less common in large families with older mothers. Husbands and wives contribute alternatively to the instabilty of one another. The influence of alcohol or drugs in family violence is difficult to assess. Alcohol plays a major role in wife battering but a minimal role in child abuse. Changes in life conditions are significant in relation to stresses encountered by already unstable individuals. The law does not contribute much to resolving the problems of violence in the family. Numerous studies involving the different types of family violence are cited.

Gropper, A. and Currie, J. *A Study of Battered Women*. Vancouver: University of B.C. (M.A. Thesis), 1976. (Canadian)

This study is concerned with women who have stayed at ishtor Women's Transition House in Aldergrove, in the central Fraser Valley, B.C. The research specifically adresses the following question: What are the factors within the transition process which lead to success for women who have used the House after having been physically abused? There are three main purposes for the research: (1) to gather information on the transition process so that services can be more sensitive and effective; (2) to see how women evaluate services such as police or lawyers; and (3) to learn the most relevant factors in a woman's perception of her situation. All women who stayed at the House from May 1974 to December 1975 were interviewed with both a basic questionnaire for the concrete information and an open-ended interview for the more personal and complex information.

Several key factors in the transition process have been identified as the most important in determining the success of women who used the house: (1) her own motivation or will to succeed; (2) the House itself; (3) the cooperation of the woman's children; (4) resources like money and work; and (5) friends. The report concludes that self-esteem plays an important role in the outcome of a violent situation, that societal resources affect the transition process and that batterers are responding to many factors including frustration, anger, and alcohol.

Hayden, J. *Wife Battering: One Perspective*. Vernon, B.C.: Vernon Transition House, 1978. (Canadian)

This report describes the data from the first year's operation of the Vernon, B.C., Transition House. This paper describes the 276 women that resided in the Transition House during this year, and examines why they were abused. The author argues that wife battering is not restricted by age or cultural background but spans all ages, cultures and incomes; that the abuse of alcohol plays a major role in family violence; and that men who beat their wives were themselves likely raised in violent families.

Higgins, J.G. Social Services for Abused Wives. *Social Casework*, 1978, 59 (5), pp. 266-271. (Canadian)

An inventory of social services available to battered wives in the United States and Canada is given. The services are classified as emergency, transitional, legal, counselling, public information, and planning. This overview briefly describes the type of aid usually found in each category and the types of groups offering such aid. Police departments are most likely to encounter the battered wife first. Few are prepared to deal with the problem but some are setting up special procedures for handling family crisis intervention. Typical aid is of an emergency nature with referral to a community agency. Some police departments have incorporated follow-up into their protocol. Hospitals are beginning to set up units to deal with battered wives. Crisis lines and information centers set up by concerned community groups are also available. A growing movement is the provision of emergency housing for battered women and their children. Such housing, with financial help, generally is provided by community service organizations or religious groups. Such groups usually can arrange for legal aid also. Counselling services are reviewed. The weakest feature of existing wife abuse services is the small number of men requesting help. The present system focuses almost completely on the victim and contributes little to the understanding of wife abuse or to methods which can be used to prevent it. There is also need for public information and planning to make people aware of the many services already offered and to avoid ducplication. The biggest problems are the lack of emergency shelters and limited funds for immediate aid to the victim.

Hogarth, J. Battered Wives and the Justice System. Vancouver: University of B.C., Faculty of Law, 1978. (Unpublished) (Canadian)

Jacobsen, B. Battered Women. The Fight to End Wife Beating. Civil Rights Digest, 1977, 9 (4), Summer, pp. 2-11.

The status of efforts to combat the problem of wife-beating in New York State and elsewhere is assessed. Statistics from a 1969 government report show that women who commit murder are motivated by self-defense seven times as often as men. Of all female murder victims, approximately one-fourth are killed by their husbands. Only one-twelfth of all male murder victims are killed by their wives. Whereas assault and battery is a readily punished crime when it involves strangers, it is not so readily punished when it involves married couples. Experts cite historical, economic, psychological, social, legal and legislative reasons for this discrepancy. Often fear plays a significant role in the battered wife syndrome, with women attempting to placate their husbands in order to avoid violence. Battered women who have come forth agree that there is no way of avoiding violence through placatory behaviour, because the factors that trigger violence are too diverse and unpredictable. The activities of an attorney with the Brooklyn Legal Services Corporation are described, including her efforts in client advocacy, publicity, and legislative reform. She is involved in a class action suit brought on behalf of battered wives against the New York Police department for refusing to arrest abusive husbands and against Family Court officers for denying the women access to judges. The attorney is also involved in the movement to create shelters for abused women. Differences of opinion concerning the kind of legislation that is needed to protect battered women are noted, and the civil rights issue raised by the shelter movement is examined. The need for criminal justice system to live up to its moral and legal obligation to help battered wives is cited.

Jaffe, P., and Burris C. An Integrated Response to Wife Assault: A Community Model. Ottawa: Solicitor General of Canada, 1982. (Unpublished) (Canadian)

This report outlines the impact of research on a community committee mandated to improve the criminal justice system's response to abused women. Data from police records and victim interviews were marshalled to help the committee develop an awareness of the problems facing women assaulted by their husbands, appreciate the importance of data for validating the extent of the problem, and encourage the creation of more victim-responsive policies.

The research conducted to gather the victims' feedback suggested that victims were treated as second-class citizens with few rights. Furthermore, victims felt that they did not have an advocate throughout their processing in the system. Victims stressed the need for protection, freedom from further violence, and help for themselves and their male partners. Their feedback strongly suggested that the victims' needs were viewed as being mutually exclusive; that is, they could get either court action, or social service and mental health intervention, but not both. They most often received neither and were left feeling responsible and helpless.

The research pointed to four major community responses necessary for effective intervention. These responses are: (a) changes in police policy concerning the laying of charges; (b) the provision of a victim advocate service; (c) the provision of self-help groups for assailants; and (d) improved public and professional education on the issue of wife assault. An outline of these programs is discussed as well as an integrated model for their evaluation and development. The theme of the innovations described is an integrated response to wife assault rather than piecemeal solutions which fragment services and confuse victims through conflicting policies, procedures, and attitudes.

Labell, L.S. Wife Abuse. A Sociological Study of Battered Women and their Mates. Victimology, 1979, 4 (2), pp. 258-267.

This article presents the results of a study of 512 physically abused women who sought services from a shelter for battered women. Information was gathered from intake and department forms and recorded for 58 variables, 26 of which are discussed. Demographic data (including number of years with spouse and number of children), previous history of violence and contributing factors are examined for women and their mates. Profiles are then drawn of a typical battered woman who seeks services from a shelter. Finally, suggestions are given for reduction of wife beating through counselling, consciousness raising, stress management, assertiveness training, self-defense and the passage of pertinent legislation.

Langley, R., and Levy, R.C. Wife Beating: The Silent Crisis. New York: Dutton, 1979.

This book examines the pervasive but neglected subject of wife beating. The authors review the research and reported crime data on the amount of wife beating in the U.S. and conclude that while most cases go unreported, between 26 and 30 million spouses are abused annually. The social and legal history of wife beating, a socio-psychological profile of a wife beater, the various motivations for intra-marital assault, and the reasons why battered women tolerate the abuse are laced with actual case studies. The legal and criminal justice response to cases of wife beating, the liberation of the battered wife, and the phenomenon of battered men are also discussed.

Levens, B., and Dutton, D. The Social Service Role of Police -- Domestic Crisis Intervention. Ottawa: Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada, 1980. (Canadian)

Although the principal mission of the police is frequently portrayed as reflecting a narrow emphasis upon controlling crime, police officers usually engage in a large number of social service activities that are not strictly related to law enforcement responsibilities. The statistics may vary from one community to another, but basically about half the calls the police receive are for assistance with personal and interpersonal crises. While some of the problems do not involve violations of the law, many situations in which the police officer is called upon to intervene are unpredictable, potentially very dangerous and require skills which most police training settings do not impart. In particular domestic disputes require the police to manage often volatile conflict situations and assume the role of social worker, psychologist and marital counsellor.

This study reviewed the training programs that have been designed to acquaint the line officer with the techniques and resources for efficiently handling domestic disputes and has identified program components associated with successful police crisis intervention strategies. The research also describes and analyses the operation of crisis intervention training on the handling of domestic disputes by the Vancouver Police Department during the first year of the training program's development and implementation.

Lewis, D. A Brief on Wife Battering with Proposals for Federal Action. Ottawa: Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women, 1982. (Canadian)

This document seeks to portray the practical realities faced by women who are battered, and indicates how such institutions of Canadian society as the family, and the welfare and legal systems serve to keep these women in a vulnerable and dangerous position. The convention of defining wife battering as an individual, private problem rather than as criminal assault is criticized. The paper concludes with suggestions for specific federal initiatives to improve the circumstances of battered women.

Loving, N. Responding to Spouse Abuse and Wife-Beating: A Guide for Police. Washington, D.C.: Police Executive Research Forum, 1980.

This report examines police response to spouse abuse and wife beating calls in 17 police departments. It also includes interviews with police managers and officers, a review of the literature, a survey administered to police officers, and extensive discussions with academics, psychologists, women's rights advocates, and other non-police personnel involved with the issue of family violence. The results indicate that the traditional police response emphasizing crisis intervention skills and reconciliation of the parties is inappropriate and unhelpful in cases involving serious injury or repeated abuse. Neither is it effective in reducing the number of spouse abuse cases. The need for a new police response is clear and the author suggest guidelines to enhance a more appropriate and human response.

Lystad, M. Violence at Home. An Annotated Bibliography. Rockville, Md: National Institute of Mental Health, 1974.

This annotated bibliography of family violence covers such topics as theories of violence and aggression, the incidence of family violence, the targets of family violence, its relationship to the social structure, socialization process, and pathology, and the services available to violent family members. Violence in the family is defined as a mode of behaviour involving the use of physical force. Such force varies in severity, intent, and cultural interpretation. The empirical evidence shows family violence to be common in all societies. Moreover, murder occurs more often among family members than among persons unrelated by family ties.

McLeod, L. Wife Battering in Canada: The Vicious Circle. Ottawa: Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women, 1980. (Canadian)

This report examines the frustrations, dilemmas and barriers women experience when they make others aware that they have been

battered. It discusses the incidence and characteristics of wife battering and exposes common myths about wife battering as well as the legal, medical and counselling procedures which help perpetuate these myths. It looks at an image of the family, developed centuries ago, but still perpetuated by our laws and traditions, which places the family outside the law and reinforces the right of men to beat their wives. Rather than looking at the individual characteristics of "battered wives" and "battering husbands" it focuses more on the social system which perpetuates and accepts wife beating throughout our society. Finally this report proposes changes which will protect women from being battered and revise procedures that leave women who have been battered with nowhere to turn.

MacLeod, F. Family Violence. Report from the Task Force. Vancouver: United Way of Lower Mainland, 1979. (Canadian)

The Task Force on Family Violence, operating under the auspices of the United Way of the Lower Mainland, was organized to implement the recommendations of the Symposium on Family Violence held in Vancouver in March 1977. The objectives of the Task Force therefore included building public and professional awareness of the extent and serious nature of family violence, facilitating a co-ordinated multidisciplined approach to the problems identified and taking initial steps in priority areas.

Members of the Task Force represented 40 different provincial and local social agencies, women's organizations, medical, legal and educational services, and the Social Planning and Research Committee of the United Way. Working groups were formed to further symposium objectives related to Child Abuse and Neglect, Wife Battering, Law and Education. This report includes discussions of these problem areas and recommendations for change.

Marquardt, J.A. and Cox, C. Violence against Wives. Expected Effects of Utah's Spouse Abuse Act. Journal of Contemporary Law, 1979, 5, pp. 277-292.

Utah's Spouse Abuse Act is assessed in relation to the psychological dynamics of wife abuse and the legal system's traditional response to such abuse. Various studies have indicated that 50 to 70 per cent of women experience some form of battering from their spouses, yet there is a failure to recognize that the battered woman is a victim. This victim often has a false perception that she cannot affect her environment. The legal system is, in part, to blame for this "learned helplessness." The formalities and complexities of the legal and social service systems often overwhelm the victim. Many courts downplay the woman's injuries and focus attention on the need to reconcile the family. Legal officials thus do not alter the battering situation, but further reinforce the victim's helplessness. The judiciary has also failed to condemn the abuse of women until recently. If the legal system sees battered women as merely experiencing minor marital problems rather than as victims of unpardonable violence, the remedies will reflect it. The spouse Abuse Act should alleviate some of the battered women's frustrations. It is an institutional declaration that abusing one's spouse is not legitimate, acceptable behaviour. It creates an independent legal right for a victim to apply to a civil court for a protective order. It places a duty on the court clerks to assist victims in preparing and filing the necessary documents. It makes an intentional violation of a protective order a misdemeanor and places the duty on law enforcement officers to aid in enforcing these orders and advising victims of their legal rights. The law applies to spouses or to those women living as spouses. Peace officers are also directed to respond to all calls of spouse abuse and to use all reasonable means to prevent further abuse. To further combat spouse abuse, however, a complete redefinition of the status of women is needed along with legislative reform.

Ontario. First Report on Family Violence: Wife Battering. Toronto: Report of the Standing Committee on Social Development, Government of Ontario, 1982. (Canadian)

This report was submitted to the Legislative Assembly of Ontario at the conclusion of hearings on wife battering conducted by the Standing Committee on Social Development. Recommendations are mainly addressed to the Ontario Ministries of the Attorney General, the Solicitor General, Community and Social Services, and Education. Special attention is given to needs of rural, Francophone, immigrant and native women. The report affirms the criminality of wife battering and deals with corresponding changes in policing and the judicial system. Additional recommendations concerns research on causation, transition house funding, education of the general public and professionals in health care and social services and, finally, an agenda for federal-provincial discussions.

Ostrowski, H.V. Legal Process for Battered Women. Vancouver, B.C.: United Way of the Lower Mainland. Planning and Research Department, 1979. (Canadian)

This handbook provides an orientation guide to the legal process in British Columbia, Canada, for women who have decided to invoke its protections against the violence of their husbands or partners. It is intended for professional workers in the legal and social welfare system, the general public, and women in particular. This book emphasizes that wife battering is against the law and outlines the legal assistance resources available to battered wives. The first part of the handbook provides quick reference for emergency action and immediate first steps that battered women can take to seek help.

Information is listed in finding legal advice, emergency shelter, and financial assistance. The second part of the book contains a brief introductory description of court structure and jurisdiction. Part 3 is designed for the person helping the battered women and describes in detail the legal remedies and actions available to a woman who has been beaten. General procedures for laying criminal charges are discussed and sections on an expanded definition of assault are provided.

Ozerkevich, M. and Steele, S. A Study of the Incidence of Drug and Alcohol Related Problems Among Support and Assault Cases Coming to the Attention of Family Court in Kingston. Ottawa: Non-Medical Use of Drugs Directorate, Research Bureau. (Canadian)

The general aims of this study were: (1) to assess the relative frequency of police contacts with domestic assault cases involving drugs or alcohol and those without drugs or alcohol; (2) to obtain a measure of the relative frequency with which these cases reach family court; (3) to assess the relative efficacy of various judicial dispositions; and (4) to determine the nature of the contact between the family court Justice of the Peace and the complainant. Due to a total absence of consistent information gathering systems for drug and alcohol, the data is clearly incomplete. However, interviews with assault victims indicate that alcohol was a significant factor in almost 85% of the cases.

Pethick, J. Battered Wives: A Select Bibliography. Toronto: University of Toronto, Centre of Criminology, 1979. (Canadian)

American, Canadian, British and Australian literature of the 1970s is covered. The book contains over 350 annotated citations on the social and legal aspects of domestic violence, studies and research on the abusers and abused, police intervention and various solutions. It includes other bibliographies, directories, and handbooks.

Renvoize, J. Web of Violence: A Study of Family Violence. Boston, Ma.: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1978.

Patterns of family violence which erupt in wife beating, child abuse, abuse of the elderly ("granny bashing"), and incest are examined. The complex interactions which accompany family violence are discussed. This British book examines the reluctance of society to face the facts of family violence until the 1900's, and the refusal to make useful provisions for victims aid, which has continued into the latter half of the 20th century. Only recently have the problems of wife beating come into the open. Shelters for battered wives are still hard to come by and housing authorities often make it quite difficult for the wife to leave the district and find new housing. The response to child abuse is swifter on the part of social agencies, but again, fragmentation of effort is more common than not. The book also examines "granny bashing," assaults against an elderly person living in the home. This differs often from other forms of family violence in that it often erupts without prior patterns of violent behaviour. Often it is the result of a tired man or woman simply shaking the elderly person much as one would shake an annoying child. The need for day care centres or sitters for the elderly to allow the children a day away is emphasized. The problem of incest is also examined. Various types of shelters and other intervention measures are described and evaluated. The problems facing social service agencies are examined. The final chapter also explores the role of mother-child bonding during birth and speculates on the role hospital practice plays in the battered child syndrome by making the father feel left out. The need for supporting social agencies has been accepted by a society which focuses on pathology. The need for prevention in the form of social and family support has not been accepted. Early intervention and reeducation of family members are deemed essential if the pattern of family violence is to be broken.

Ridington, J. Transition Process. A feminist environment as reconstitutive milieu. Victimology, 1978, 2 (3-4), pp. 563-575. (Canadian)

The development of the Vancouver Transition House for Women is traced, along with suggestions for the treatment of battered women, in response to a need for assistance to battered women in Vancouver, British Columbia. The Women in Transition was formed in 1972 to establish refuges for battered women. The House, funded and staffed entirely by women, opened in December, 1973. The staff members were chosen because of their similarity to and association with other troubled women -- they were not social workers, and had no previous experience working in such a facility. Staff members make arrangements for medical examinations and child court proceedings when necessary, and they help the woman examine and evaluate her situation and options. They also suggest other methods which women in similar situations have used to solve their problems. Since the Transition House is a cooperative, the women are encouraged to take turns babysitting, and a duty roster is set up for weekly chores. Follow-up studies are not possible because of the transient nature of the women who leave the House. Since some cases take longer to resolve than the one-month transition period, creation of a House for long-term residents is being considered. References are provided.

Ross, P.D. Proceedings from the Symposium on Family Violence. Vancouver: United Way of Greater Vancouver, 1977. (Canadian)

Roy, M., (ed), 1977, Battered Women. A Psychosociological Study of Domestic Violence. New York: Von Nostrand Reinhold.

Aspects of the problem of battered wives are examined in this collection of articles. An historical overview shows that wife beating has only recently come to be regarded as a crime: religious and social traditions which have perpetuated violence in marriage are noted. A research project probing a cross-section of 150 battered women corroborates the premise that wife beating is a social problem generated and compounded by many factors. The social aspects of the issue are covered in articles on the social dynamics of marital violence, on the different levels of physical violence between spouses, and on the social psychological aspect of wife beating. Additional articles investigate the neurological, psychiatric, and psychological factors involved. A section on the law and law enforcement examines the treatment of wife beating in the criminal justice system. The treatment of wife beating, mediation and the community dispute center, a study of 23 violent matrimonial cases, domestic violence over the generations within a family, legislative needs and solutions, and a model for services based on New York City's Abused Women's Aid in Crisis (AWAIC) program are included in the chapter on future trends and prevention. Appendices present the AWAIC 1976-1977 progress report, New York City Council resolutions and legislation regarding wife beating, and information on a 1975 New York City conference entitled "The Abused and Battered Women in Crisis -- A Multi-faceted Approach."

Royal Canadian Mounted Police. Hard Look at Domestic Violence. R.C.M.P. Gazette, 1978, 40 (8), pp. 8-12. (Canadian)

While abuse and neglect are leading causes of death in children, crimes committed within the home are nearly unpunishable. Society needs to face the fact that the family relationship is no excuse for assault or murder. The U.S. National Centre on Child Abuse lists child abuse as the fifth killer of children in the United States after accidents, cancer, cogenital abnormalities, and pneumonia. If all accidental deaths were properly investigated and if the number of children who die of pneumonia brought on by neglect were correctly assessed, child abuse would fall much closer to the top as a cause of death. The reluctance of social service agencies, police, and the courts to become involved in domestic violence can be traced to the belief that a man's home is his castle and the events that take place therein are private family matters. It is only recently that society has realized that domestic violence is costly and that these costs represent not only the crimes committed in the family, but also the violence and crime perpetrated on the society as a whole by those who learn violence at home. However, social agencies have been slow to act. In almost all cases of child murder, not only did other family members know of prior attacks, but often so did several adults from various areas of community life. Law enforcement agencies and courts are urged to recognize that assault and murder are still crimes even if they take place within the family. Canadian laws which permit corporal punishment should be abolished, as such laws have been in Sweden. In California assaults within the family are being punished just as any other assault. Canadian officials are urged to follow this example to protect the children of the country.

Ryan, E.F. Family Law: Enforcement of Maintenance Orders. Study paper prepared for the Law Reform Commission of Canada, Ottawa, 1976. (Canadian)

Steinmetz, S.K. Cycle of Violence. Assertive, Aggressive and Abusive Family Interaction. New York: Praeger, 1977.

A survey of 57 Delaware families was conducted to obtain an accurate view of how members of normal American families interact to resolve intrafamilial conflicts. A stratified quota sample of normal American families composed of husband, wife, and 2 or more children between 3 and 18 years of age was chosen from New Castle County, Delaware. Families were selected by a public-opinion polling and market-research company; out of 217 families which qualified for the study, 57 were interviewed. Quantitative data on the modes of conflict resolution between husband and wife, parent and child, and sibling and sibling were obtained through questionnaires, while qualitative data on intrafamilial conflict resolutions were collected from semistructured interviews. A diary approach to systematic recording of all family conflicts, the source of conflict, method used for resolving it, and the perceived success of each interaction over a 1-week period was also employed to help eliminate the effect of recall which is a problem in retrospective data collections. Findings showed that: (1) sibling conflicts decrease as children move from young to adolescent to teenage stage in the life cycle, and the conflicts are different in origin; (2) considerably more use of physical means is made to resolve conflicts among younger groups of siblings, while adolescent groups resort more often to verbal modes; (3) mother-child conflicts are more prevalent than father-child conflicts; (4) power struggles between parent and child seem to be the basis for parent-child conflicts; (5) discussion and verbal aggression were nearly universally used to some degree to resolve marital conflict; (6) physical aggression was used by 60 percent of the families with little difference shown between husbands and wives in the type of physical aggression used; and (7) over 65 percent of the marital conflicts were preceived to be resolved successfully. A typology of family conflict resolution modes identified four distinct types; screaming sluggers, silent attackers, threateners, and pacifists. The conflict-resolution methods used by husbands and wives to resolve marital conflict were found to be quite similar to the methods these individuals used when disciplining their children. The cycle continues when the children mature and marry, and then pass on this method to their children. Theory and policy implications and alternative modes of interaction are suggested. Appendices present the research instruments and a demographic profile of New Castle County. Supporting statistics, references, bibliographies on various types of domestic violence, a subject index and a name index are provided.

Steinmetz, S.K. Violence Between Family Members -- A Review of the Recent Literature. Marriage and Family Review, 1978, 1 (3), pp. 3-16.

Recent literature on violence between family members in the U.S. is reviewed, with emphasis on the scope and nature of such violence and its causes, prevention, treatment and future. Family violence has been present from colonial times to the present, but has only recently been acknowledged as a social problem instead of the behaviour of a few disturbed abnormal individuals. Family violence including marital violence, parent-child violence, and sibling violence, affects all socioeconomic groups. Two types of family violence (sibling violence and corporal punishment) are generally considered normal by U.S. society. The cost of family violence goes beyond the destruction faced by individuals and their families. It extends to rape, murder, political assassination, severe mental disorders, and suicide. Research has examined numerous factors (psychiatric conditions, social class, pregnancy, social isolation, prematurity, mental retardation, and physical handicaps) and their relationship to family violence. Gelles and Straus have divided 15 theories of family violence into three groups depending on the type of fundamental causal factor (intraindividual, social-psychological, or sociocultural). They have integrated these theories using social learning and symbolic interaction theories. Another approach integrates symbolic interaction, social learning, resource, and conflict theories. Three major treatment modalities for child-abusing families include the psychiatric approach, the sociological approach, and the social-situational approach. Treatment programs for battered women have been limited to crisis lines, police domestic intervention teams, and shelters. Several authors have developed checklists to identify potential abusing spouses or abusing parents. Although laws concerning family violence are being considered, the problem can only be reduced if society alters its attitudes toward the morality of family violence.

Steinmetz, S.K. and Strauss, M.A. (eds) Violence in the Family. New York: Harper and Row, 1974.

This work is a compilation of 38 papers on the subject of violence in the family drawn from a literature review. One section of the book deals with violence between spouses and kin and contains seven articles of interest to those involved in providing social or criminal justice assistance for victims of marital violence. Parts 3 and 4 of the book deal with "Violent Parents" and "The Family as a Training Ground for Societal Violence." The book's strength lies in its comprehensive documentation of the spouse abuse problem and its analysis of root causes.

Strauss, M.A., Gelles, R.J., and Steinmetz, S.K. *Violence in the Family. An Assessment of Knowledge and Research Needs.* Washington, D.C.: American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1976.

This document provides an overview of the existing and needed research on the frequency of family violence, the causal theories of family violence, violence against children and wives, and family violence factors. The research on frequency of family violence indicated that the family is the social relationship and social setting within which the typical citizen is most likely to be the victim of a physical attack. After reviewing general theories of interpersonal violence, the paper examines research on the characteristics which distinguish the family from other small groups and which seem to account for the higher level of intrafamily violence than is found in other groups. Research on child abuse and "wife beating" is also discussed. Finally, the paper identifies a series of 17 specific controversies concerning the nature and causes of intrafamily violence which urgently call for research.

Strauss, M., Gelles, R. and Steinmetz, S. *Behind Closed Doors: Violence in the American Family*. New York: Anchor/Doubleday, 1980.

Thompson, J., and Gilby, R. Correlates of Domestic Violence and the Role of Police Agencies. In Silverman, R.E., and Teevan, J. (eds) *Crime in Canadian Society*. (2nd ed.) Toronto: Buttersworth, 1980. (Canadian)

U.S. Civil Rights Commission (ed) *Battered Women: Issues in Public Policy*. Washington, D.C.: editor, 1978.

This is the publication of the Proceedings of the Consultation on Battered Women sponsored by the Commission in January 1978. The purpose of the consultation was to identify existing research data on wife abuse and to consider research strategies to fill information gaps; to identify areas of state laws and law enforcement where reforms are needed; to present available short- and long-term resources for battered women; to discuss the federal responsibility and role in domestic violence issues; to bring together researchers, activists, policy makers, and others; and to inform the public. The Commission invited experts from a variety of fields to present papers which are published in their entirety in the proceedings.

Viano, E.C. (ed) Spouse Abuse. *Victimology*, 1978, 2 (3-4).

The problems and issues of spouse abuse and domestic violence throughout the world are discussed in this collection of articles. The following topics are covered: (1) violence against women is a violation of human rights and should no longer be tolerated; (2) women should not wait for the institutions of society to solve this problem -- they should put pressure on the male establishment to break this cycle of violence, and (3) women have gained strength, solidarity, and power by addressing the problem of wife battering. A review of literature and interviews with battered women are presented. The collection also includes letters to the editor on the topic of spouse abuse, research notes (including statistical summaries), book reviews, and general comments on the subject.

Walker, L. The Battered Woman. New York: Harper and Row, 1979.

Walker's work represents the first full-volume attempt to describe a psychology of battered women. She posits that Seligman's theory of "learned helplessness" applies to victims of wife beating. This theory holds that once individuals believe they are helpless and unable to control their lives' events, it is difficult for them to believe they will ever again influence their lives, even if later a favourable experience indicates the opposite. Walker uses the concept to explain the seemingly endless variety of barriers and difficulties that women experience in extricating themselves from violent relationships. Society reinforces their feelings of helplessness, according to Walker, by failing to provide spouse abuse victims with effective social services and criminal justice responses. A lengthy section details the variety of coercive techniques used by batterers. It illuminates effectively the role of economic deprivation in such relationships, and examines the specifics of physical, sexual and social abuse. A significant contribution made by Walker is her theory of the cyclical nature of battering. It has three distinct phases: the tension building phase, the explosion or acute battering incident, and the calm, loving respite. Walker's theory offers important treatment considerations to professionals working with battered wives who attempt to continue their marital relationship. The book concludes with a section that examines safe houses, legal and medical alternatives, and analyzes the various forms of psychotherapy currently used by professionals whose clients are victims and abusers.

Warrior, B. Battered Lives. Pittsburgh, Pa.: Know Inc., 1974.

The social and political dimensions of wife beating are discussed in a pamphlet from a feminist organization. Evidence that wife beating is a relatively common practice is cited, and reasons for the lack of public outcry about the problem are explored. Myths about the offender-victim relationship in wife beating situations are discussed, as are attitudes that have made it possible for most men who beat their wives to escape legal action. A case study illustrates the problems that confront women who attempt to escape from violent marriages. Many of the problems stem from the insensitivity of psychiatrists, welfare agencies, police and others to whom such women turn to for help. Particular attention is directed to the economic dependency that binds women to their husbands, and to the tendency of psychiatry to view wife beating as a matter of female personality aberrations. Past and current cultural practices indicative of the powerlessness of women throughout the world and of the blatant disregard for their physical and mental well-being are cited. It is pointed out that many people like to think of wife beating as an expression of personal problems by two sick individuals. It is concluded that the men who do the beating are sick, but that their sickness is a social and political one that also afflicts many of the people who should be seeking solutions to the problem. It is further concluded that, while providing battered women with refuges offers a short-term solution, the only long-term solution to wife beating lies in the elimination of all aspects of male privilege and domination.

Wolfgang, M. Violence in the Family. In Kutash, I.L. (ed) Violence. Perspectives on Murder and Aggression. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1978.

Cultural dimensions of violence, the process of socialization, the extent and nature of criminal violence within families, the subculture of violence theory, and family crisis intervention policy are discussed. The use of physical force by parents to restrain and punish children, sanctioned violence in wars and other contexts, sex roles, and violence in the media are among cultural factors said to contribute to the process of socialization through which children come to accept violence as part of their lives. Studies pointing to a number of conditions-sensory deprivation, lack of affection, sexual repression, punitiveness, etc., -- that breed violence are cited. The subculture of violence theory -- the idea that acceptance of violence is transmitted culturally from one generation to the next -- is discussed, with reference to the mechanisms by which violent behaviour is learned and to the social dynamics of family life. Statistics from the Uniform Crime Reports and other sources indicative of the extent and character of family criminal violence -- matricide and patricide, spouse killing spouse, parents killing children, etc. -- are presented, including data on the disposition of family homicide cases and a brief mention of studies in other countries. Police statements to the effect that family violence is largely beyond police control are questioned. A Kansas City. Mo., study linking homicides and assaults with prior family disturbance calls is cited as evidence that greater attention to the handling of such calls might reduce domestic homicide and family violence in general. It is concluded that, while violence in the family is partly a reflection of violent expressions in the culture generally, serious crimes in families most commonly are related to subcultural values that either fail to inhibit physical responses or actually condone or encourage them. The potential benefits of dispersing the members of violent subcultures, perhaps by introducing greater heterogeneity into neighbourhoods and housing projects, are considered.

Wolfgang, M.E., Weiner, N.A. and Pointer, W.D. Domestic Criminal Violence. A Selected Bibliography. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, 1981.

This extensive bibliography (1170 entries) is part of a set of five topical bibliographies on criminal violence, each covering an area of continuing major concern in criminological theory and empirical research in criminology and criminal justice. The search covers the years 1972 to 1980. Domestic criminal violence refers here to criminal violence occurring within the confines of the family, and includes all forms of legally proscribed behaviour that one family member can inflict upon another. Such violence is usually classified according to the parties involved and generally falls within the following four categories: spouse abuse, child abuse, sibling abuse, and parent abuse, with the great majority of documents included here covering the first two categories. The documents cited examine diverse aspects of domestic violence ranging from its seriousness and extent, to its various causes and effects -- particularly its psychological correlates and determinants -- and to its current emergence as a public rather than a private affair. Also included are documents which examine the legal issues surrounding domestic criminal violence, review pending legislation drafted to deal with these legal issues, describe the structure and focus of public and private programs designed to respond to domestic criminal violence, and examine the effectiveness of these programs.

3. Child Abuse/Incest

Adler, L. Child Abuse Victims: Are they also Victims of an Adversarial and Heirarchial Court System? Pepperdine Law Review, 1978, 5 (3), pp. 717-739.

Court system deficiencies have hampered integrated professional efforts in child abuse cases. Adjustments related to the adversary system and court hierarchies are suggested which stress children's needs. Definitions of child abuse are presented and characteristics of child abusers are described. Historically, the juvenile court has struggled with the dilemma of whether to view the dependent, abused and neglected child, as a social or legal problem. The Gault decision resulted in an emphasis on factfinding in child abuse cases and the polarization of the two involved attorneys. This adversarial system makes prosecution of child abuse difficult since there are usually no eye witnesses, making it hard to prove. Legally adversary proceedings can have the effect of reinforcing and perpetuating family fragmentation and violence. Juvenile and family courts, which have jurisdiction over child abuse cases, are of such low status that these are disheartening to persons seeking to protect children from abuse. The users of juvenile and family courts are often the essentially powerless persons from the lowest socioeconomic sectors of the population.

The low status of the courts is reflected in the frequent rotation of judges, insufficient specialized training for judicial personnel, and the small amount of court time allotted to such cases (estimated at 5 per cent of total court time). Specific adjustments that can have the effect of child abuse prevention are wider utilization of a family court structure, formalized and legitimized multi-disciplinary pre-judicial conferences among professionals (doctors, social workers, and law enforcement and legal personnel) and expanded use of court-ordered treatment plans for noncooperative parents with sanctions provided for noncompliance. Juvenile courts can elevate their status by increased participation in the community and assisting in educating the public on the unmet needs of children. Law schools should elevate the study of family law by including curriculums that emphasize child welfare specialities.

Allan, L.J. Child Abuse: A Critical Review of the Research and the Theory. In Martin, J.P. (ed), Violence and the Family. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1978.

The difficulties associated with defining child abuse, the content and validity of child abuse research, the direction provided by current knowledge, and new directions for research are discussed. Difficulties associated with defining child abuse are cited, because such a discussion highlights the complex nature of the phenomenon and the effect which different definitions will have on the scope and results of research. Also, an examination of definition is considered to illustrate the difficulties faced in trying to draw general conclusions from studies which have started with different definitions. Theories and findings in the following areas of research are discussed: psychopathology of abusing parents, the development of typologies of abusing parents, the childhood history of abusing parents, marital difficulties of abusing parents, characteristics of the abused child, and the characteristics of social stresses on the abusing parents. A long list of factors associated with child abuse is noted, and it is concluded that without some attempt to weight or order the factors so their relative contribution can be assessed, the information does little to further knowledge about the interrelationship of the variables identified. It is suggested that a more adequate model of violence in the family be developed which acknowledges both the role of individual factors and that of environment factors and their inevitable interaction. It is recommended that a system be devised which would weight factors thought to be most influential in producing violent behaviour in different individuals, with four initial categories (1) parents whose violence stems largely from external pressures, (2) parents whose early learning experiences are likely to give a predisposition toward violent behaviour, (3) parents whose violence stems from emotional deficits that lead to extreme egocentricity, and (4) parents whose violence is a symptom of serious mental illness.

Baily, B. Child Abuse: Causes, Effects and Prevention. Victimology, 1977, 2 (2), pp. 337-342.

Research reports on the causes, prevention, and effects of child abuse are presented, emphasizing the use of statistics. Three research projects on child abuse in progress as of the time of writing are described. The first attempts to identify personality factors which may be predictive of an individual likely to cause child abuse. The results of personality tests for three groups -- identified abusers, potential abusers, and normals -- are compared to see whether there is some element which can allow psychologists to predict who will become an abuser. The second project is studying abused children to determine causes and effects of abuse. The final project discusses a child abuse prevention project. Surveys were taken to determine which groups may evidence child abuse, and prevention campaigns were geared to reach these groups. The campaign raised awareness, but more data interpretation is necessary. The author concludes that the major result of the third study was to establish the usage of empirical data to prevent child abuse.

Bakan, D., Eisner, N., and Needham, H.G. Child Abuse. A Bibliography. Ottawa: Canadian Council on Children and Youth, 1976. (Canadian)

Approximately 900 books, journal articles, newspaper and magazine articles, television scripts, and dissertations are included in this bibliography of English and French language materials about child abuse. The bibliography is arranged in three parts: an introduction to the nature of child abuse; an alphabetical listing of the materials by author; and a subject index. Most of the items cover the period 1965 through 1975. Materials are included from Canada, the United States, England, India, Iceland, Australia and New Zealand. The introduction covers the history of child abuse and its recognition as a social problem, symptoms and diagnosis of abuse, effects of abuse on the child, etiology of child abuse, management of child abuse, and legal intervention. The materials themselves cover the psychological, social, medical, and legal aspects. A number of forensic pathology materials cover child abuse as a cause of death and the collection of evidence in cases of infanticide. Entries provide author, title, publication date, and journal citation or publisher.

Barrett, B. Child Abuse Treatment. In Lauderdale, M.L., et al. (eds) Child Abuse and Neglect. Issues on Innovation and Implementation. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1978.

Treatment approaches to deal with child abuse and neglect are examined that take into account the causal relation between social policy systems and child abuse and neglect and provide an action or treatment plan. The treatment approaches are based on the following assumptions: children have a right to their natural heritage; all children are of equal worth; all children and families are entitled to participate in the total social and economic picture; punishment serves no purpose for children or parents; the medical-pathological model is not useful in dealing with people in crisis and is limited in the treatment of child abuse and neglect; voluntary rather than coercive services are preferred; and people can change and, when given the opportunity, will make choices reflecting value premises of optimal development and self-actualization. The first treatment approach represents a comprehensive understanding of social and family dynamics and is designed to minimize disruption of families and maximize protection of children. It is embodied in a Department of Health, Education and Welfare-funded demonstration project, the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA), family stress center. Major treatment components of the YMCA centre program are positive parenting, parent aides, emergency caretakers, child care, individual and family counselling, marriage group counselling, child development, a mothers' group, advocacy, and transportation. The second treatment approach is a system of coordinated services intended to meet emergency needs of children and families in crisis, providing options in care and treatment to protect children and reduce trauma. The approach is reflected in the comprehensive emergency services system in Nashville, Tenn., and involves a concentrated effort to provide high-quality services to neglected, dependent, and abused children on a 24-hour basis, including weekends and holidays. Emphasis in the approach is on maintaining children in their own homes. When removal is necessary, however, services are provided to children and families that promote orderly placement and minimize damage. Basic components of the approach are 24-hour emergency intake, emergency caretakers, emergency homemakers, emergency shelter for families, emergency foster family homes, emergency shelter for adolescents, and outreach and follow-up.

Berliner, L. Child Sexual Abuse. What Happens Next? Victimology, 1977, 2 (2), pp. 327-331.

Emotional trauma and psychological disorders of sexually abused children are discussed. Children who are sexually abused should be treated through crisis intervention counselling. The parents, as well as the child, are in need of psychological treatment. If the child is treated immediately and properly, there will probably be no severe emotional scars; but if the abuse is long-term and at the hands of another member of the family, the emotional problems are more severe. The child has to be protected from the abuser as well. Protection by the criminal justice system is often inadequate because there is rarely sufficient evidence to try a case, and the child risks further psychological trauma from being involved in a trial. Guidelines are given explaining what parents should do when a child reports an incident and how to help the child. The most common immediate problems of sexually molested children are listed, and data on sexual abuse of children are presented in outline form.

Bernstein, D. Police v. Child Abuse. Protecting the Victim Comes First. Police Magazine, 1978, 1 (5), pp. 58-63.

A Tuscon, Ariz. police detective's efforts to combat child abuse by establishing a child abuse unit and by improving police relations with medical personnel and social workers is described. The detective became concerned about child abuse when repeated beatings led to the death of a young child but failed to bring a conviction of the responsible party. The police had not been informed of the case until it was too late for a thorough investigation. The detective looked into the situation on his own time and concluded that Tucson had a severe child abuse problem and that abuse cases weren't being reported because the public thought nothing would be done or feared the police would jail the abusers. The detective became the Tucson police department's child abuse unit and began to develop personal contacts with physicians and social workers, which in turn led to greater police involvement in abuse cases. One year later, a second officer was added to the unit, which was investigating up to 35 cases each month. The unit also trained police officers in proper procedures for handling child abuse incidents and made presentations on child abuse to groups of citizens. Always giving top priority to the safety of the child, the child abuse unit tries to convince parents to obtain counselling, resorting to arrest and prosecution only for repeat offenders and in cases involving serious injury. The officers take into account the pressures that may have led to the abuse and avoid putting parents on the defensive. Their approach has earned them the respect of physicians and child welfare agency personnel, who now make special efforts to cooperate in police investigations of abuse cases. A committee of physicians, social workers, lawyers, and police meets monthly to discuss new approaches to dealing with child abuse. All Tucson hospitals have established child abuse teams. In addition, the citizens of Tucson have donated funds for two shelters, where parents can leave their children when they feel inclined to abuse them. Consideration is being given to expanding the child abuse unit to encompass other kinds of domestic violence.

Burgess, A.W. and Groth, N. Sexual Victimization of Children. In Volpe, R., Breton, M., and Hittion, J. (eds) Maltreatment of the School-Aged Child. Lexington, Ma.: D.C. Health, 1980.

Forms of sexual victimization of children are discussed, and the identification and prevention of this problem are reviewed. Child molesters are seen to gain access to their victims through the use of some sort of psychological pressure, such as enticement or encouragement, or through the use of force in the form of threats and intimidation or brute physical strength. In sex pressure situations, offenders appear to strongly identify with their victims, and sex becomes the proof and measure of the children's acceptance and love. Most offenders who use threats and intimidation do not intend to injure their victims; few offenders derive pleasure in actually hurting children. A discussion of the impact of molestation on victims is based on work with child victims at the Boston City Hospital and considers the relationship of secrecy and sexual activity, conflicts in feelings when the offender is a family member, vulnerability to physical and psychological symptoms, offenders' surveillance of their victims, and sexuality as it relates to the victim. The role of school personnel in preventing offenses in the school environment and in identifying victims also receives attention. Among the signs of suspected sexual victimization considered are changes in a child's school behaviour, sexually explicit behaviour, and biophysical changes. Suggestions for investigating suspected victimization deal with the areas of reporting, avoiding confrontations between victims and perpetrators, incest, sex bias concerning targets, continued exposure, and irresolution on the part of investigators. Further suggestions concern educating children in avoiding rape and molestation.

Butler, S. Conspiracy of Silence: The Trauma of Incest. San Francisco: New Glide, 1978.

Through personal interviews with victims, aggressors, family members, and professional counsellors, the etiology and consequences of incest are discussed and suggestions for dealing with the problem offered. In this study, "incestuous assault" refers to "any manual oral, or genital sexual contact or other explicity sexual behaviour that an adult family member imposes on a child, who is unable to alter or understand the adult's behaviour because of his or her powerlessness in the family and early stage of psychological development." Athough the aggressors are most often the victim's fathers, grandfathers, or uncles, they are always adults whom the victims had reason to trust in a normally loving and intimate context. Although the statisitics on the extent of incestuous assault are incomplete, confusing, and often contradictory, they point to a problem of enormous dimensions and social implications. The dynamics of long-term victim reactions to assault are discussed through quoted interviews with victims. Most often the relationship, usually father-daughter, builds up the normal desire of the child for closeness with the parent, but the sexual dimensions of it eventually stimulate shame, guilt, and hostility as interaction with society and accepted cultural standards reveals the strong taboo against what has happened. The profile of the aggressor, obtained through interviews with abusers and with those who have counselled in incest cases, reveal no distinctive socioeconomic characteristics, but shows early childhood emotional deprivation, an inability to achieve social and sexual intimacy with adults, a general lack of success in achievement in traditional masculine roles, and a tendency to expect females to be submissive and compliant in meeting male needs. An examination of counselling services generally available for families and individuals expected a lack of awareness of incest as a prevalent problem among troubled juveniles, very little knowledge about the nature of the problem, and few programs equipped to deal with it. The importance of sympathetic and tactful response on the part of the adult to whom the child reports the incest is emphasized; children rarely report incest if it has not occurred and are more likely to lie to protect their family. The appendices contain the California State Penal Code Sections relating to child sexual abuse and the mandatory child-abuse reporting law for California.

Canada. Child Abuse and Neglect. Ottawa: Supply and Services, 1977. (Canadian)

Appropriate legislative and service delivery measures for the prevention, identification, and treatment of child abuse and neglect in Canada are considered. Jurisdiction with respect to child abuse and neglect rests with both the provincial government, which may engage in protective actions on behalf of children, and with the federal government, which through its criminal law provides reinforcement for provincial laws. Likewise, service delivery is the responsibility of the provinces, which act in conjunction with the federal government through cost-sharing arrangements. Evidence on child abuse and neglect indicates that there is no accurate incidence figure because of reporting deficiencies. Causes of child abuse and neglect are multitudinous, and much abuse appears to occur within the context of disciplinary physical punishment. In general, the criminal code offers little aid in facilitating prevention or treatment in child abuse and neglect, and services tend to concentrate on intervention subsequent to the breakdown of the family unit. There is a great need for public education. Clarification of reporting requirements and information on service availability are of particular importance, while much has been done in the area of treatment and identification. Prevention activities could have a significant impact on the problem. Additional issues considered include (1) provincial mandatory reporting requirements (2) the advisability of enacting mandatory reporting at the federal level (3) procedures and problem areas in provincial registries and the advisability of a federal registry; (4) current criminal remedies for child abuse and neglect and the desirability of providing further criminal sanctions; (5) physical punishment in public schools, and (6) the need for more extensive preventive services. Greater government commitment to preventive and protective services, and to community health and social services are recommended. Interagency coordination and cooperation is advised, and research into all aspects of child abuse and neglect is suggested. Also recommended is the development of a statistical data base and resource and information service. It is suggested that evidence from a spouse should be admissable in criminal cases, that mandatory provincial reporting requirements are adequate, and that central provincial registries, rather than a federal registry, be established. The need for public and professional education in the area of child abuse and neglect is emphasized. Other definitions of "neglected child" and provincial reporting provisions and specific child abuse legislation are appended.

Canada. National ad hoc Advisory Committee Report on Child Battering -- Principal Recommendations. Ottawa: Health and Welfare, 1973. (Canadian)

This report examines the elements of child abuse and makes recommendations for alleviating the problems associated with it. Representatives of health, welfare and law, together with interested citizens participated on this Committee. The study was based on the theory that the only effective approach to solving the problem of child battering is remedial treatment and preventive measures. The limited role of the federal government is viewed as significant although programs and services are within provincial jurisdictions. The following discussions are reviewed: the problems and practices associated with reporting and registration; consideration of a multidisciplinary approach to intervention and case management, social environments; and research, experimentation and education. Specific recommendations for further study are provided after each discussion, the principal being (1) establishment of mandatory reporting systems, and maintenance of a central registry; (2) immediate institution of intervention and case management upon incident acknowledgement; (3) development and expansion of preventative methods aimed at improving parental roles and general environment; (4) continued and extended support for research, experimentation and education and (5) expansion of federal government responsibility. The appendices contain an examination of relevant legislation and lists of participants on the committee.

Chase, N.F. A Child is Being Beaten. Violence Against Children, an American Tragedy. New York: Holt, Rinehard and Winston, 1975.

Case histories and anecdotes are presented to illustrate the extent and nature of the child abuse problem in the U.S. as well as its implications for society. The thesis of the book is that child abuse is a serious social problem that goes back to the beginnings of history. Every society has had a policy, implicit or explict, for dealing with mouths it couldn't feed: infanticide has often been practiced. Particularly in recent modern history, societies have had policies for dealing with the children of the poor. In order to make serious efforts to protect children against abuse, it is necessary to look at violence against children in the context of a violent society that sanctions social and institutional neglect. Practices of ancient societies regarding the torture, sacrifice or other violence toward children are described. The great variety in different cultures' attitudes toward children is also examined. The origins of western society's conception of children as a separate sub-group from adults, as well as American attitudes toward the poor and minorities, are traced. Discrimination by American institutions -- schools, juvenile correctional facilities, and social welfare agencies -- against youths, particularly poor minority youths, is discussed. Cases of child abuse by these institutions are also recorded. Historical events, particularly industrialization and urbanization which have acted to increase the incidence of child exploitation and abuse in modern society are examined. One specifc case of abuse, in which a 3-year-old child was murdered by her stepfather while her drug addict mother looked on, even though the parents were being "helped" by professional social workers at the time, is examined in detail, with all of its repercussions for the family court and the social welfare system. One chapter examines the childhood experiences of such people as Charles Manson and Jack Ruby. Many cases are described of violent adults who had been abused as children or who had exhibited violent behaviour as juveniles, but who had received no help from American social institutions. Statistics on the incidence of abuse, profiles of abusing parents, family income, and other factors which affect the problem are presented. An analysis of the types of parents who abuse their children and causes of the problem are examined, and the author summarizes her conclusions about the society which produces such abuse.

Chertkow, J.P. Child Abuse. The Legislative Response in the Province of Ontario. Child Abuse and Neglect, 1979, 3 (2), Special Issue, Part 2, pp. 623-632. (Canadian)

The legislative response to the problem of child abuse in Ontario, Canada, is addressed in this article which states that legal action is complicated due to the province's constitutional division of powers. In Ontario, criminal law falls within the exclusive jurisdiction of the federal government which enacts the Criminal Code; social welfare legislation for the protection of children, on the other hand, is regarded as a matter of civil rights within the province. Infliction of physical harm against children is not given specific recognition in the Criminal Code, although the Code does aim at certain ommissions affecting children. The most comprehensive piece of legislation for the protection and care of children is the Children's Protection Act which introduced several important concepts which have been preserved in modern legislation, including recognizing the Childrens Aid Society as the primary social welfare agency for providing services to children. The act underwent major revisions in 1965. Two notable concepts of this revision were Crown wardship (under which a judge can order that a child in need of protection be made a ward of the Crown) and a requirement to encourage suspected child abuse and neglect reporting. The act also contains special powers for the apprehension of children suspected of being in need of protection. Recent legislative proposals, including enhanced reporting requirements, child abuse registry, and separate legal representation of children are discussed.

Dickens, B.H. Legal Issues in Child Abuse. Toronto: University of Toronto, Centre of Criminology, 1976. (Canadian)

This working paper considers some of the difficulties that exist in the Canadian Criminal Justice Systems approach to child abuse. Problems discussed include Canada's vague definition of a child in need of protection, the unenforceability and non-binding nature of the child abuse reporting law, the general lack of quick and easy access to a child's comprehensive medical records, and court rules which limit the introduction of pertinent evidence (such as the testimony of the non-defendant spouse). Also noted are limitations on the role of the Crown attorney and police in child abuse cases and questions surrounding the need for an adversary system of trial and for separate legal representation of the child in court proceedings. Several reform measures are recommended.

Dickens, B. Legal Responses to Child Abuse in Canada. Canadian Journal of Family Law, 1978, 1, pp. 87-125. (Canadian)

Because of the interlocking interests amongst the victim, the offender and the State, child abuse must be perceived in law as more than a mere assault. The author examines the inadequate statutory criteria for state intervention found in child protection legislation and suggests that the greater responsibility for identifying and reporting of child abuse should be placed upon professional persons. Criminal punishment of the offender is too frequently incompatible with the child victim's long-term interests, and the author shows that Court-ordered wardships are not free of difficulty either. The judicial hearing is faced with certain evidentiary obstacles and with the lack of independent representation for the child. The author concludes with an assessment of the spreading use of child-abuse registers and of the dichotomous role of child welfare agencies as "friend" for and as "prosecution witnesses" against the family.

Dobash, R. The Relationship Between Violence Directed at Women and Violence Directed at Children within the Family Setting. Evidence presented to the Parliamentary Select Committee on Violence in the Family. Ottawa, 1977. (Canadian)

This brief paper reports some preliminary findings of a research project undertaken in Scotland in 1974. Data from interviews with battered women were augmented by information from police and court records. Analysis of these data indicated that relatively few cases of wife assault involved a second victim (13 per cent). In those cases where a second victim was involved, this person was most likely to be a female child. Typically, these children were assaulted when they attempted to intervene in the assault on their mother. Only rarely were they singled out as the primary target. The author does not discuss the implications of these assaults for either the mother or the child.

Franklin, A.W. (ed) Challenge of Child Abuse. London: Academic Press, 1977.

Proceedings of a 1976 child abuse conference held by the Royal Society of Medicine challenge basic assumptions as to how society (especially the courts and professions) can respond. Many diagnostic and management problems face those charged with the responsibility for aiding troubled families and abused children. These problems may be avoided by drawing upon the experiences of earlier responses to other types of deviance. Understanding the dynamics of aggression is important in dealing with child abuse. Such research will help the caring professions to develop effective therapeutic systems. In fact, the failure of child abuse programs to deal with family and societal dynamics has reduced the effectiveness of these programs. This failure results in part from the lack of coordination, especially between the helping professions (such as doctors, psychiatists, and social workers) and the courts, and in part from the refusal to give the public the opportunity to assume responsibility for its actions. Efforts are being made, however, to reinvolve the community. Articles dealing with these issues include studies of characteristics of abused children and their parents, the nature of child abuse causes, treatment, and prevention, philosophical issues, and psychiatric considerations. A reenactment of a case conference on an abusive family is appended.

Gil, D.G. Child Abuse. Levels of Manifestation, Causal Dimensions and Primary Prevention. Victimology, 1977, 2 (2), pp. 186-194.

The problem of child abuse is examined, with its manifestations in the home and in institutions, causes, and prevention through elimination of the causal contexts. Child abuse is defined as the waste of children's instrinsic potential or discrepancies between those circumstances conducive to optimal child development and the actual circumstances. Two analytic concepts are used to study the nature of child abuse and to develop effective policies and programs for its prevention: levels of manifestation, and levels of causation. Levels of manifestation identify the agents and settings in which children may experience abuse. The interaction of various levels of causation results in abusive acts and abusive conditions at the three different levels of manifestation: the home, institutions, such as day-care centers, schools, courts, and child care agencies, and society itself. Abusive acts in the home may be intentional or unintentional, one-time events or a regular pattern. At the institutional level, abuse consists of acts and policies which inhibit a child's development or which do not provide means for optimal development. Abuse at school often has an indirect effect upon abuse at home, as parents may view abusive behaviour by educational authorities as appropriate and correct, sanctioned by experts. Societal child abuse stems from social policies which sanction deficits between actual and optimal conditions for child development. Primary prevention of child abuse (ie. prevention by removal of causal contexts) would require fundamental changes in social philosophy, the elimination of poverty, and the elimination of psychological illness. Primary prevention is thus a political issue which cannot be resolved through professional and administrative measures. If complete societal change is not accomplished, the most that can be expected is some measure of amelioration of the problem.

Greenland, C. Child Abuse in Ontario. Toronto: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1973. (Canadian)

A study of the nature and incidence of child abuse in Ontario is documented and response to child abuse reporting legislation is examined. The central register, which is maintained by Ontario's Ministry of Community and Social Services Child Welfare Branch, received 1,603 reports of child abuse from Children's Aid Societies from 1966 through 1970. There were 40 deaths of children under age 5 in which physical abuse or criminal negligence was the probable cause. The study found that physical abuse of children in Ontario is not limited to very young children, although the very young often suffer the most serious injuries and are more likely to die from their injuries than are older children. Analysis of 359 cases of abuse involving 397 children reported to the central register in 1970 found that more than one-third of the children received only bruises or welts, and that 10 percent had no apparent injury. Fifteen percent were injured sufficiently to require hospital admission. More men than women were reported and verified as having abused their children. Excessive use of discipline, or deliberate or malicious abuse or neglect, was the most apparent cause of injuries. It was concluded that, although the incidence of child abuse in Ontario probably is greater than reports to the register indicate, the notion that a very great number of cases go unreported is not substantiated. However, it was also concluded that physicians have been reluctant to report suspected abuse, particularly when evidence cannot be substantiated. The study's findings on the causes of child abuse and death, the characteristics of abusers, and the circumstances surrounding abuse are summarized. A typology of abusive situations is presented. Sources of referral of abuse cases to Children's Aid Societies (schools, natural mothers, neighbours, hospitals, police, family relatives, private physicians, public nurses in order of frequency) are identified. Children's Aid Society intervention in abuse cases is described as are legal actions taken against abusers. The process of child abuse reporting in Ontario is reviewed, with emphasis on shortcomings of the central register. Problems with the record-keeping practices of the Children's Aid Society are also noted. Highlights from press coverage of child abuse incidents are reviewed and supporting data are provided.

Greenland, C. Child Abuse Deaths in Ontario. Research Paper for the Report of the Task Force on Child Abuse. Toronto: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1978. (Canadian)

Case summaries are used to examine decisionmaking by member organizations of the Ontario Association of Children's Aid Societies (OACAS) (Canada) in child abuse cases resulting in death. Thirteen cases of child abuse deaths, in 1976-77 are studied, and 11 cases not involving death, but evidencing good case management are included. In examining the case records, particular attention is paid to who reported and who received the initial complaint (as many of the deceased children were known to the OACAS), how it was investigated, and what action was taken. The case summaries show that infants under age 2 have a substantially higher risk of death from child abuse. Since 5 of the 13 mothers involved were 19 or younger, case workers should pay especially close attention to complaints about young, unstable parents having very young children. Risk taking in these cases should be kept to a minimum and young mothers taught birth control. Since in many abuse cases, the OACAS is dealing with multiproblem families, cooperation with other social agencies is essential. OACAS should remember the first duty is child protection, not family therapy, as many children died after the OACAS was reluctant to take them into custody. Moreover, failure of abusive parents to keep appointments or allow OACAS personnel into their homes should be viewed with alarm and acted upon immediately, since seriously abusive parents often avoid the OACAS. Finally, inquests should be held in all child abuse deaths, and the central child abuse registry should be notified more regularly of child abuse incidents. Appendices contain case summaries, case trajectories examples, and a report on child battery.

Harvey, T.G. Study of Guidelines for Practice and Procedure in Handling Cases of Child Abuse in Ontario's Children Aid Societies. Research paper for the Task Force on Child Abuse. Toronto: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1978. (Canadian)

This study discusses data and study findings about current guidelines and practices used by the Ontario Association of Children's Aid Societies (OACAS) (Canada) in handling child abuse cases and related problems. The study collected data through mailout questionnaires, personal interviews with a sample of the staffs of 50 OACAS, and examination of child abuse case file records in a sample of 8 OACAS.

The study assessed only procedures and practices in handling child abuse cases, and not the overall quality of care and treatment provided by OACAS. Findings show that the smaller, rural, northern Ontario communities have problems in treating child abuse because services and medical specialists are in short supply. Further, no strategies have yet been devised to deal successfully with child abuse among Indians. All communities require expanded educational programs on child abuse for social workers. Child battery represents but a small element in the caseloads of most OACAS and social workers continue to need to correctly identify risks. Moreover, OACAS have not extensively developed guidelines for identifying and treating child abuse. Existing guidelines vary greatly from one organization to another and are often not in writing. Also, social workers in OACAS desire more explicit guidelines, many societies are plagued by inexperienced staff with case handling results, and few social workers interviewed felt confident about their interviewing treatment skills. Other findings cover the propensity of OACAS to remove children from the homes, interagency collaboration, the status of guidelines and procedures for removing children from their homes, referring cases to the court and relationships with law enforcement agencies. Thus, the study found that while some agencies follow adequate guidelines and procedures, many do not. Further, child protection varies from jurisdiction to jurisdiction. Tabular data and footnotes are included. Appendices contain tables of OACAS guidelines and a questionnaire.

Helfer, R.E. Child Abuse and Neglect. The Diagnostic Process and Treatment Programs. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1975.

This manual is designed to provide physicians and nurses with the necessary background to understand the basic process in developing the diagnosis and the concept of treatment programs for the abused child and his family. The author notes that helping the abused or neglected child and his family is feasible in the great majority of cases, but requires the cooperation of several different professional fields. This manual outlines one such cooperative system that may be used to deal with child abuse and neglect. An overview of this system, called the diagnostic and treatment process, is first presented, using a flow chart of the steps involved. Among the phases of this process are the diagnosis of possible child abuse, the emergency room or office phase, and the diagnostic assessment phase, which involves diagnosis by a special multidisciplinary team of such personnel as protective service workers, hospital social workers, physicians, a public health nurse, a psychiatrist, lawyer, and law enforcement officer. The acute treatment phase and long term treatment phase are then outlined. Specific treatment options and methods are delineated.

Hepworth, H.P. Services for Abused and Battered Children. Personal Social Services in Canada, a Review, Vol. 3. Ottawa: Canadian Council on Social Development, 1975. (Canadian)

This report reviews the organization and provisions of child abuse services in Canadian provinces and evaluates their effectiveness and efficiency. This review examined child abuse services in relation to explicit and implicit policy, legislation, and general provisions, descriptions of actual programs in operation, eligibility, coverage and actual use of services, specific geographical service studies, illustrative research and evaluation of programs, and general evaluations by individuals and organizations. Data were collected from relevant materials provided by provincial governments, national and provincial voluntary agencies, individuals and researchers. Interviews were also conducted with agency staff. Extensive legal provision for the protection and care of children is explicit in the Canadian criminal code and in provincial child welfare legislation. Specific legislative measures have been taken in Ontario, Alberta, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, British Columbia, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Quebec. In some provinces registers are used to record cases of suspected or proven child abuse and to provide basic information for the surveillance of children reported to them. Even in provinces which have child abuse registers, reporting of suspected incidents of child abuse probably does not reflect the actual incidence of child abuse. A lack of precise definitions of what constitutes abuse also inhibits the development of protective and preventive treatment services. Recommendations are made that support integration and coordination of child welfare services with other personal social services and improvement in detection and reporting systems, promotion of public awareness campaigns, assessment of personnel qualifications and responsibilities, and further research into domestic violence.

Holmes, R.C. Police Role in Child Abuse. On Patrol in Manitoba, 1979, 5 (4), pp. 11-14. (Canadian)

An overview of the child abuse problem in Canada reveals the increasingly important role of the police, particularly in prevention. Provincial laws require police to investigate and report all suspected cases of child abuse to the proper provincial authorities. In addition, there is a child welfare act in every province that provides for police and welfare workers to remove children from a home where, upon reasonable grounds, child abuse is suspected. Despite these laws, however, very few cases of child abuse are reported, due to lack of public intervention in parental child abuse. Dentists, teachers, clergy, social workers, and even doctors often fail to report cases of suspected child abuse to the police. A major part of every investigation is public support for the police both by reporting an offense and by testifying as to what was seen or heard. If the public is apathetic, the police may well reflect this same attitude. Traditionally, police have had a social service role in child abuse prevention, but now the need is to professionalize the police role in a mutually complementary approach with other responsible agencies. Communication should be strengthened between social workers and police and between judicial authorities and police. Legislation should provide family courts with the authority to sentence child abusers to a rehabilitation-treatment center. Also, a variety of community-based treatment programs should be available. An efficient, accurate reporting system is needed. The law must provide some form of penalty for failing to report child abuse, including a clause of civil-liability protection for those who do report. All reports should be made to a central registry. In the multidisciplinary approach of the agencies, one agency should be designated as the responsible agency for all action initiated. Particular concern must be directed toward rural areas where few rehabilitative facilities are available. Continuing to support programs that first protect the child from adult abuse, police foresee having even broader discretionary powers and training in the future, participating more in the legislative process, and enabling greater citizen cooperation.

International Association of Chiefs of Police. The Police Perspective on Child Abuse and Neglect. Gaithersberg, Md: Author, 1977.

This police training manual is designed to acquaint the officer with various aspects of child abuse, to define the police role, and to provide guidance about when and how to take action successfully in child abuse cases. After a brief introduction to the scope and nature of the child abuse and neglect problem in the U.S., the manual defines the problem and describes the various forms it can take. Physical and behavioral indicators which may lead an investigating officer to suspect physical assault, physical neglect, sexual abuse, or emotional maltreatment of a child are outlined. A discussion of state statutes regarding the reporting of suspected child abuse cases points out the laws' variations from state to state and describes the major common points. Who is required to report suspected cases, what kind of protection they are offered, and the penalties for nonreporting are briefly discussed. After a report is filed, an investigation must be conducted; this aspect of the police role is examined separately. The purpose and goals of an investigation, the types of information which should be obtained, various investigative techniques, types of evidence which are most useful, and guidelines for interviewing the child are all considered. Police disposition of the case is discussed. Taking the child into protective custody, if necessary, arresting the abusing parents, and referring the case to a social service agency are all actions the police could take, and the implications of each are explored. The manual emphasizes cooperation between the police and other professionals, such as social workers, in investigating and disposing of cases. The various types of agencies which are concerned with child abuse, including medical groups and schools, their roles, and ways in which they and the police can help each other are discussed. A final chapter gives several kinds of resource information for the police trainer. It provides materials that are of direct use in the classroom, including child abuse and neglect guidelines, several case studies, a procedural flow chart, and a child abuse training key.

James, K.L. Incest, the Teenager's Perspective. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 1977, 14 (2), pp. 146-155.

Attitudes of seven teenage women with incest experience are discussed and their responses to a group treatment program evaluated. The seven teenagers studied were all committed to institutional treatment by their community courts, five for repeated runaway and two for runaway and prostitution. All seven reported that the incest experience was partially responsible for their subsequent delinquency. The males involved were all caucasian, of middle or lower middle income, and were fathers or stepfathers of the victims. The seven teenagers voluntarily participated in eight one-hour group therapy sessions, with two subgroups in each session. They took control of focusing the discussions, with minimal participation from the author. Topics chosen included feelings about the perpetrator, about males in general, about rape, about talking about it, and about self-image. Comparisons of pretests and posttests showed that the therapy increased comfort in talking about the incest, although the teenagers would have preferred family therapy to the treatment given. In addition, the incest itself was not as damaging emotionally as were reactions from both families and counselors. Moreover, had appropriate services been available, the subsequent delinquency might have been prevented. Results indicated that in cases of incest, immediate family treatment and crisis intervention would be preferable to efforts to establish guilt or innocence of one family member. Use of existing agencies or establishing new ones like the child sexual abuse and treatment program in Santa Clara County, California, are recommended.

Kalisch, B.J. Child Abuse and Neglect. An Annotated Bibliography. Westport, Ct.: Greenwood Press, 1978.

This reference tool includes literature from the late 1800's to 1977. It is directed toward researchers, human service workers, and lay persons interested in child abuse. The entries on the subject of child abuse and neglect include general surveys, historical studies, problem definitions, demographic variables, and legal issues. Entries are also included on prediction, detection, prevention, causative factors, manifestations, treatments, sexual abuses, and legal issues involving these subjects. Each subject section is divided into subsections, with entries arranged alphabetically. The bibliography opens with an overview of the child abuse and neglect issue. A user's guide, author index, and subject-key-word index are provided. The appendixes contain lists of basic bibliographic tools and of selected organizations interested in child abuse and neglect in the United States. They also contain a reproduction of the Texas child abuse prevention and treatment act.

Kalmar, R. Child Abuse. Perspectives on Diagnosis, Treatment and Prevention. Dubuque, Ia: Kendall-Hunt, 1977.

Essays define the problem and discuss the child as victim and the parent as both victimizer and victim. Approaches toward prevention and treatment of child abuse are suggested. Discussions deal with: observations on children who have been physically abused and their parents, the child-abusing parent, familiar patterns of parents who abuse their children, and a family study of child abuse. In order to combat child abuse effectively, it is recommended: that all states provide comprehensive and protective services for abused children and their families; that educators, hospital personnel and social service workers be trained to identify child abuse and be sensitized regarding their feelings towards abusive parents; and that such personnel be informed of reporting procedures in their states and be required to report suspected child abuse, with guaranteed immunity from lawsuits. A central register should be established in each of the states which would both coordinate efforts at investigating abuse and monitor child abuse clinics. At the same time, the register should be empowered to delegate cases to a variety of agencies within certain districts.

Kamerman, S.B. Eight Countries Cross-National Perspectives in Child Abuse and Neglect. Children Today, 1975, 4 (3), pp. 34-37.

Tentative trends and issues in approaches to child abuse are reported from a survey of the United States, Canada, France, West Germany, Israel, Poland, the United Kingdom, and Yugoslavia. This report comes from an uncompleted larger study of social services in a number of countries begun by the Columbia University School of Social Work in 1972. This section of the study examines the following issues relating to the handling of child abuse and neglect in eight countries: the definition of child abuse and neglect, how it is perceived as a social problem, procedures for identifying abused/neglected children, the nature of programs developed to deal with the problem, the nature of research and the problem of child abuse and neglect, and, major issues identified by experts in the field in each participating country. Data were assembled and analyzed by leading researchers who are natives of the countries studied. Reports were written and service models described for various parts of each country. In addition, one or more local jurisdictions were selected in each nation for more detailed description and analysis. This presentation is a preliminary summary and analysis of the data processed thus far. It is indicated that child abuse and neglect is imprecisely defined in most of the countries studied and, in many, does not receive a focus separate from general child welfare services. Researchers in all countries agree that there are no firm data on the incidence of child abuse/neglect, however defined. Except for Canada and the United States, none of the countries studied has a mandated child abuse and neglect reporting system. The perspective of social agencies in many countries is that child abuse and neglect is a symptom of broader social needs in a family which must be the target for a multidisciplinary, broad-based approach to family care. A case manager who guides all services to a given family is a prime figure in most of the programs described. Research on child abuse and neglect is considered to be in its incipient stages in all the countries studied, with the United States being more advanced in this respect than the other countries.

Klemmack, S.H. Child Victims. In Brodsky, S.L. et al. (eds) Sexual Assault. A Literature Analysis. Alabama University: Department of Psychology Center for Correctional Psychology, 1977.

Literature on child victims of sexual assault and their treatment is reviewed. The literature on child sexual assault is as extensive as that on victims in general, but neither is extensive relative to the literature on other aspects of sexual assault. In part, because of the discomfort involved in considering issues of sexuality and violence when children are involved, too often the focus has been on the complicity of the child rather than on the trauma of the event and the irresponsibility of the offender. Many articles and books are devoted to countering myths about child assault. Most researchers agree that the incidence of sexual abuse of children is severely underestimated. A few studies have been based on systematic observations of children as victims. Most other investigations are case reports focusing on causative factors, particularly family structure or victim characteristics, or on psychological effects. Two concerns stand out: the effects of sexual assault as a child on adult psychological functioning, and the child as a willing participant, if not the instigator, of sexual contacts. Studies also have been devoted to incest and to the role of the family in contributing to assault compared to the number of articles concerned with the offense of child sexual assault, the victim's role and personality.

Maden, M. and Wrench, D. Significant Findings in Child Abuse Research. Victimology, 1977, 2 (2), pp. 196-227.

This article aims at reviewing the most significant recent research and literature in the field of child abuse. It identifies the most important findings in several key areas of concern and points to unexplored or neglected areas of study. A comprehensive bibliography follows the text.

Manitoba Department of Health and Social Development. Child Abuse. 6th Ed. Winnipeg: Author, 1978. (Canadian)

The problem of child abuse has far-reaching and serious consequences for society as a whole. This Canadian pamphlet treats in clear, concise language the many aspects of the problem. After defining the terms child abuse, battered child, and child abuser, the pamphlet discusses the differences between reactions and attitudes of protective and abusing parents toward children's injuries. Protective parents identify with the injured child's feelings when he is hurt, whereas abusing parents are critical of the child and angry with him for being injured. The difference in behavior between well-nurtured children in a medical setting and abused children in the same situation is noted. Well nurtured children turn to parents for assurance and comfort during and after examination while the abused child is apprehensive, withdrawn, and wary of physical contact. It is difficult to gauge the extent of child abuse since it usually occurs in very young children or infants in the privacy of the home. It is estimated that Canada has between 4,275 to 4,810 reported cases each year. Many cases, however, go unreported. The pamphlet considers treatment of child abusers preferable to intervention of criminal law, stating that 75% of abusers can be treated successfully. Success in treatment depends, however, on many factors: the degree of emotional disturbance of the abuser, the availability of psychiatric and social work services, the support of spouse and close relatives, and the abuser's willingness to accept help.

Martin, H.P. and Beezley, P. Behavioral Observations of Abused Children. Developmental Medicine and Child Neurology, 1977, 19 (3), pp. 373-397.

This 1977 follow-up study of 50 abused children shows that they suffer continued psychic injury even though intervention with the parents may stop the threat of physical abuse. Abused children have both physical and psychological wounds. While the neurological and cognitive sequelae of physical abuse of children have been well documented, little attention has been focused on personality development. A widespread assumption is that the personality characteristics of abused children are primarily the result of the physical abuse itself. However, this study examined the impact of home environments. The 50 children were assessed 4-1/2 years after physical abuse was first identified. Ages ranged from 22 months to 13 years with the mean age being 6.5 years. Over half of the children had suffered only soft-tissue damage. The children were given a physical examination, intelligence testing, interviews, and a neuro-developmental assessment and were observed through a one-way mirror. In addition to clinical observations, data about the children's behavior at home and school were obtained by interviews with the parents during a home visit and from reports by teachers and social workers. An impaired ability for enjoyment was noted in 33 of the 50 children. Behavioral symptoms (e.g. enuresis, and poor peer relationships) were noted in 31 children. These additional behavioral problems were found in at least 25 percent of the children: withdrawal, opposition, hypervigilance, compulsivity, precocious behavior, and school learning problems. The actual physical abuse suffered by the children did not account for their subsequent psychological problems. Rather, such home environment factors as unstable family structure and emotional disturbance in the parents, impaired the psychic development of abused children. Tables and references are provided.

Matthews, P. Multidisciplinary Urban Response to Child Abuse and Neglect. Child Abuse and Neglect, 1977, 1 (1), pp. 245-254. (Canadian)

Canadian child abuse prevention and treatment programs are discussed. The Province of Saskatchewan operates its child protection program through a Department of Social Services. Regular top level meetings are held with other government departments, but there is limited liaison and cooperation in matter of child abuse. Only recently has any commitment been initiated to a province-wide program that would provide a register of abuse, emergency telephone lines, and adequate publicity. Department of Social Service programs focus on general issues such as family and income support. There is a mandate for the department to intervene on behalf of children but it is not often implemented. A multidisciplinary effort has evolved out of growing concern over recent incidents of child abuse. In response to published reports of abuse, a group of concerned individuals - lawyers, mothers, teachers, as well as social service professionals - formed the Saskatoon Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. A separate group of pediatricians, social workers, and psychiatrists formed a second multidisciplinary group that works in conjunction with hospitals on serious cases of abuse. From the outset, liaison has been emphasized. Both groups have met monthly and there was general agreement that abuse prevention and treatment efforts were inadequate. The areas most in need of change were thought to be information preparedness, skills in case management, and the attitudes towards those involved with the problem of abuse. The groups have worked to define problems, outline solutions, and work with the people most closely involved, assisting them to educate themselves. Sources of resource material and avenues for public education are discussed, including the use of public library material and the media. The groups also initiated an informal survey of the various agencies that have occasion to deal with incidents of child abuse. It was found that few police, nurses, emergency room or physicians' secretaries had knowledge of the procedures primary to coping with child abuse. In the training of professionals, little attention was being paid to issues of child abuse treatment and prevention. A chapter of Parents Anonymous, a self-help group for abusing parents, has been founded in the province. Various briefs have been filed with national departments and agencies with regard to requests for funding and policy and legislative reform. As a result of the collaboration between the two groups and the Department of Social Services, greater availability of skilled workers to staff phone lines and easier public access to services have been achieved. References are provided.

Meiselman, K.C. Incest: A Psychological Study of Causes and Effects With Treatment Recommendations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1978.

A well documented book in which Karin Meiselman compares her own study on incest with the well-known literature. She discusses various forms of incest, and concludes with treatment recommendations.

Minnesota Program for Victims of Sexual Assault. Incest: Confronting the Silent Crime. Minneapolis: Suther, 1979.

This document was written to serve as a manual for educators, law enforcement, medical, human services and legal personnel dealing with incest. It provides an overview of the problem followed by specific guidelines for the detection, reporting, investigation, prosecution and prevention of sexual abuse of children.

Nasjletti, N. Suffering in Silence. The Male Incest Victim. Child Welfare, 1980, 59 (5), pp. 269-275.

Unrealistic demands and emotional restrictions on boys create a social climate that prevents them from making disclosures when they are incest victims. The Sacremento child sexual abuse treatment program was designed as a group therapy experience for adolescent male incest victims. All of the boys in the group were sexually abused by a relative, were court dependents under the protection and supervision of the juvenile court, and were between the ages of 12 and 17. The group met once a week for 1.5-hour sessions, over 22 months. Most of the boys were extremely resistant to discuss their molestation experiences. Psychological factors involved in the boys' difficulty in reporting and discussing their victimization are found in the American definition of masculinity (males must protect themselves and must react aggressively, except when females physically abuse them, in which case they are allowed to be passive). Professionals and the public often react with disbelief to the sexual abuse of boys by adult females. However, clinical observations of the effects of seduction of a male child by his mother, mother surrogate, or other significant adult female indicate that such an experience has long-range detrimental effects on the boys' psychosocial development. Among these are that (1) rapists are often found to have had sexual or sexualized relationships with their mothers, (2) incestuous fathers are often found to have had stimulating relationships with their mothers, and (3) some homosexuals are said to have chosen homosexuality as a defense against their sexual feelings for a seductive mother. Thus, society needs to reexamine its role expectations of male children. Professionals must explore ways to facilitate male disclosure of sexual abuse, and the public must be made more aware of the consequences of current socialization patterns for males.

Ontario. Research Papers for the Report of the Task Force on Child Abuse. Toronto: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1978. (Canadian)

The objective of this report was to provide the Ontario Task Force on Child Abuse with data regarding guidelines and practices followed by Ontario Children's Aid Societies in handling cases of child abuse. The study involved a survey of all Ontario C.A.S.'s plus the review of a number of case studies. The report concludes with a set of recommendations for improvements in the way child abuse cases are handled.

Pascoe, D.J. Management of Sexually Abused Children. Pediatric Annals, 1979, 8 (5), pp. 44-58.

Medical management of sexually abused children and adolescents must cover not only the traumatic problems of the patients but also their long-term emotional problems. Health care personnel must recognize that sexual abuse may produce long-term emotional consequences for the child and the family. Overall objectives of medical management of the sexually abused child are to care for the acute medical problems of the child and the acute emotional problems of the child and family; safeguard the child from threat of further sexual abuse; formulate plans for comprehensive follow-up medical and psychologic treatment for child and family; and comply with established legal requirements. An interview with the child may precede or be part of the examination. It is essential that all victims of sexual assault receive a medical evaluation, with particular attention given to items appropriate for the proper diagnosis of sexual trauma and the collection of required data and specimens. A review of laboratory techniques is given including such methods as the use of the wood's lamp, studies of sperm identification, and ABO/semen typing, venereal disease prophylaxis and pregnancy prevention are also discussed. The clinical management of sexual abuse presented in the article reflects the approach developed by the staff of the Child and Adolescent Sexual Abuse Research Center at the Children's Health Center, San Francisco General Hospital. References are given.

Robertshaw, C. Child Protection in Canada. Discussion Paper Prepared for Health and Welfare. Ottawa: Health and Welfare, 1981. (Canadian)

This discussion paper contains much, but not all, of the research undertaken for the purposes of the recent Health and Welfare-sponsored study of child abuse and neglect. The principal areas of research studied were provincial/territorial child welfare statutes, statistical information on child abuse and neglect, deaths of children in need of protection in Canada during 1977, hospital-based child protection teams in Canada; the role of the child protection authorities and other social agencies and professionals, and, significant judicial decisions in child protection hearings. (The last part of the research has been commenced but not completed.)

Robinson, K. Child Abuse and Neglect. A Report of the Standing Committee on Health, Welfare, and Social Affairs. Ottawa: House of Commons, 1976. (Canadian)

This document comprises minutes of expert testimony and excerpts from submitted briefs concerning child abuse and neglect in Canada. Particular attention is paid to the issues of federal and provincial jurisdictional responsibilities, mandatory reporting requirements and central registers of abused children. The report concludes with a number of recommendations related to these concerns.

Ross, R.R. Violence In. Violence Out. Child Abuse and Self-Mutilation in Adolescent Offenders. Toronto: McGraw Hill, 1979. (Canadian)

The association between child abuse and later self-mutilation was examined by studying case histories of 170 adolescent girls in an Ontario, Canada, training school. Self-cutting (carving) was a perennial problem at the school. The study population consisted of 24 noncarvers, 26 single carvers, and 70 girls who had carved more than once. Subjects' case histories were examined for evidence that they had been victims of violence in earlier years. Data came from probation officers' reports, children's aid society case histories, and psychiatric, psychological, and social work reports. Results showed that 48 percent of the multicarver group had been victims of violence by parents or parent surrogates before their 12th birthdays, compared to 2 percent of those who had never carved. Findings supported the possibility of a link between child abuse and self-multilation. Evidence must be viewed cautiously, however. Abuse was defined not as a spanking as a means of discipline but as a severe beating, with or without provocation. The study therefore excluded many incidents which might be considered abusive by other definitions. Moreover, reported abuse incidents were not authenticated. However, results are valuable when compared with other findings which also show a relationship between abuse and self-multilation. Recent research has demonstrated relationships between child abuse and spouse abuse, homicide, and suicide. Explanations for self-mutilation which have led to successful intervention approaches include social learning, avoidance conditioning, insensitivity to pain, and neutralizing parent abuse. Persistant self-defeating behavior may be caused by abusive parents' failures to promote acquisition of appropriate and adaptable avoidance responses. Research on child abuse has virtually ignored the link between parental abuse and self-injurious behavior. Further research is needed.

Roth, R.A. Child Sexual Abuse - Incest, Assault, and Sexual Exploitation - A Special Report from the National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect. Washington, D.C.: Herner and Co., 1978.

An overview of child sexual abuse -- its nature, extent, dynamics, effects, prevention, treatment -- is presented in a booklet directed to professionals and lay persons concerned with the problem. Sexual abuse of children encompasses many behaviors and involves varying degrees of violence and emotional trauma. There are no statistics on the incidence of child sexual abuse, but it has been estimated that between 60,000 and 100,000 cases occur annually. Most estimates exclude the victims of pornographic exploitation and child prostitution, and there is reason to believe that child sexual abuse is underreported. Usually, the sexually abused child knows the abuser. Rape and sadism do occur, but violence in child sexual abuse is the exception rather than the rule. The dynamics of abuse depend on the child's relationship to the abuser. Certain traits (e.g. social isolation, fears of family disintegration) are commonly found in incestuous families. There has been little research on the effects of child sexual abuse, but several variables -- the child's age and developmental status, the victim-perpetrator relationship, the amount of force or violence involved, the degree of shame or guilt evoked in the child, and particularly the reactions of parents, professionals, and the community -- seem to be critical determinants of the child victim's reaction to abuse. There are signs of a trend away from punishment and toward therapy in child sexual abuse intervention. The Santa Clara County, Calif., juvenile probation department's family counseling program has proved particularly effective. If child sexual abuse is to be prevented, professionals must become sensitive to the problem, parents and children must be educated, and societal attitudes must be changed.

Schuchter, A. Child Abuse Intervention: Prescriptive Package. Gaithersburg, MD: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1976.

Guidelines are presented for implementing a full-service, community based child abuse program. The roles of the criminal justice system are defined as initial detection and identification of possible abuse (the police) and the application of judicial services and enforcement of civil, criminal, and social service alternatives (the courts). The model system also prescribes the appropriate input of the medical agencies, particularly the community hospitals whose responsibilities lie in medical diagnosis, data maintenance, and provision of judicial evidence, if it is determined that court action is warranted. The author's overriding concern is first the provision of immediate medical attention to the injured child, and second, the provision of due process protection for both the assaulted and the assailant. Part one of the prescriptive package concentrates on presenting an overview of child abuse problems and practices and on developing a strategy for model system development. Part two translates the proposed strategy for the model system into the organizational components and procedures of the model system by presenting a hypothetical scenario for handling a suspected child abuse case in the model system. Part three concludes the prescriptive package with a detailed comparison of the existing and proposed model systems; a decision-making guide for the proposed model system, structured around the sequence of key decisions to be made by specified decision-makers based on recommended criteria and guidelines; and a checklist of questions and answers for justice personnel keyed to the recommended decisions.

Schultz, L.B. (ed). Sexual Victimology of Youth. Springfield, Il.: Charles C. Thomas, 1980.

This anthology of readings on child sexual abuse focuses on the issues of legal control, diagnosis and treatment, incest, the victim and the justice system, the child sex industry, and sexual emancipation. The recognition and treatment of incest, rape, child molestation, and other sexual trauma of children and adolescents are fully detailed. Medical models drawn from emergency room cases and gynecology clinic records illustrate the various modes of abuse. Guidelines and procedures are given for identifying abused children and diagnosing and reporting sexual abuse cases. The long-range effects of childhood sexual abuse are presented through a survey of individuals who suffered sexual trauma in childhood. A special section is devoted to the multifaceted nature of the relationship between the victim and the family, including a humanistic treatment program for father-daughter incest cases. The child victim in the criminal justice system is viewed from the general perspective of child development and special techniques are recommended for accommodating child witnesses in criminal justice proceedings. The legal aspects of police interrogation of children, children's testimony, courtroom procedures, and courtroom use of agency and hospital records are discussed. A section devoted to the child sex industry examines adult sexual interest in children and minors. Interviews with unconvicted child molesters and their spouses document pederastic and pedophiliac behaviors. The recruitment and use of minors in pornographic filmmaking is also discussed. Concluding remarks deal with the evolution of the age-of-consent legal doctrine and the changing social patterns of youthful, sexual expression and behaviors, challenging the age-of-consent and statutory rape laws.

Segal, J. Child Abuse: A Review of Research. In Corfman, E. (ed) Family Violence and Child Abuse. Rockville, Md.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1979.

A review of recent research and child abuse, this article discusses the causes of abuse, its effects on the child, and how to help both the victims of child abuse and their abusers. One team of researchers studying a nationally representative sample of 2,143 families found that child abuse is a dramatic aspect of a much broader pattern of violence that characterizes the American family today. The study revealed a surprising range and severity of parental violence toward children. For example, 20 percent of the parents had hit a child with an object and over 4 percent indicated they had beaten up their child. Nearly 3 percent of abusing parents used a knife or gun on their child. Each year, over one and a half million American children from ages 3 to 17 are attacked by their parents. Studies show that abused children suffer impaired intellectual functioning, as well as physical, psychological, and social problems that scar not only them but also their future children. Psychosocial dwarfism is often a direct outcome of severe and malignant child abuse. In an environment of abuse and neglect, the young body stops growing normally and the result is a child stunted in both physical and mental growth, with low IQ, an inability to handle language, low sense of self-esteem, and confused sexual identification. Perhaps the most malignant outcome of child abuse, however, is the seed of violence it sows in the heart and mind of the young victim. In fact, the most overriding characteristic of adults who violate their children is a background of abuse in their own childhoods. Studies also indicate that low-birth-weight, premature infants seem to invite violence. Programs that offer hope for dealing with child abuse include parent groups, home support programs, hotline telephone service, crisis nurseries and dropoff centers, child care instruction, and public education. Ultimately, however, the best way to prevent abuse lies in the development of techniques for anticipating the abuse and preventing it. A research team in Denver states that families identified as being in need of extra services must have access to intensive, continuous interventions to predict and prevent abuse. References are cited.

Smith, S.H. Battered Child Syndrome. London: Butterworths, 1975.

This text includes a critical review of the literature of child abuse and a report of a research study of the battered child conducted at the University of Birmingham, England, from 1970 to 1974. The literature review includes an historical perspective on the problem of child abuse, a description of the battered child syndrome, clinical manifestations of the battered child syndrome, and the incidence of this syndrome in the U.S.A., Canada, and Great Britain. Literature dealing with the psychiatric aspects of child abuse, treatment of this problem, and court procedures in child abuse cases is also examined. The research study conducted by the author was designed to determine the characteristics of child-abusing parents. This study compared age, psychiatric status, criminality, and intelligence of 214 parents of battered children and 76 control parents. It also reported on the methods used by the British social services departments and the police in managing these 134 battered children and their parents. Findings are reported for the psychiatric characteristics of these parents, the social characteristics of child abusive families, and the child rearing practices of these parents.

Smith, S.M., (ed). Maltreatment of Children. Baltimore, Md.: University Park Press, 1978.

A comprehensive review of and source of reference for treatment and management of the maltreated child are provided for medical and legal practitioners and related professionals. American, British, and Canadian experts from the fields of pediatrics, psychiatry, psychology, radiology, law, and social work have contributed to this volume, applying their practical and academic knowledge to the causes and treatment of maltreated children. These contributors also have critically reviewed and integrated the existing literature on the subject into their individual experiences. The topics covered include the medical aspects of child abuse and neglect, detailed radiological and pathological aspects of the battered child syndrome, and recommendations for managing the problem. The epidemiology of child abuse is addressed in terms of the historical episodes, cultural patterns and biological principles relating to the varieties and prevalence of child abuse. A psychiatrist's viewpoint of the historical precedents, causes and treatment methods of abuse cases is expressed, along with articles covering the extent of the problem, the psychological aspects of child abuse, the needs of children, and the emergence of the child as a legal entity. The contributions of social agencies and the social worker are also represented. Finally, medical-legal and societal problems underlying child prostitution, child pornography, and drug-related abuse are highlighted, with detailed case histories and recommended legislation. References, an index, and tables are provided. An appendix contains a review of the literature concerning the extent of child abuse, with most of the references referring to publications from Western Europe, the U.S. and Australia.

Solberg, D. The Battered Child Syndrome. A Survey of Medical, Forensic and Psychiatric Considerations, 1976. (Canadian)

This survey of medical, forensic, and psychiatric aspects of the battered child syndrome (BCS) concludes that BCS differs significantly from neglect and general abuse, a distinction the law should recognize. The survey places particular emphasis on Canadian law and research. Identifying BCS should be a matter of medical diagnosis. When an injured child is examined, the syndrome should be considered when the clinical findings differ markedly from the historical data supplied by the parents and when certain surface marks, skeletal injuries, visceral injuries, or intracranial injury are found. Despite research and empirical findings on general abuse and neglect, current law combines the three syndromes and therefore thwarts effective intervention and treatment. Laws should be changed to empower medical personnel to provide immediate lifesaving treatment whenever the BCS diagnosis is made. Such laws would be analogous to mental health laws permitting involuntary psychiatric admissions to hospitals. Equally important as the medical and legal aspects of BCS are the psychiatric aspects of families involved. Psychiatric literature indicates no real distinction between abusers and batterers, but suggests that about 35 percent of the battering situations are susceptible to treatments other than separation of the child from the family. Intervention strategies should focus on any of four areas: limits on behavior, daily routines, giving of care, and 'anchor points' -- daily issues which provide safe outlets for aggression and frustration. Because battered children come from families and may themselves form families, treatment of the whole family is necessary to interrupt the cycle of child abuse from one generation to the next. Illustrations, footnotes, and bibliographies for each chapter are included.

Stephenson, P.S. Reaching Child Abusers through Target Toddlers. Victimology, 1977, 2 (2), pp. 310-316. (Canadian)

A Canadian demonstration program is described which worked on a voluntary basis with parents who were neglecting or abusing their children and provided an alternative to traditional treatment approaches. 'Project Toddler' was aimed at disadvantaged families who were suspicious of traditional treatment such as foster care. The program provided an enrichment program for the target toddlers, emphasized medical and nutritional care, and attempted an evaluation by use of a control group. Young preschool teachers were used as the primary therapists to provide an enrichment program for the toddlers and also to work with parents and siblings. The children were picked up each day by the teachers, who gathered three children per car and drove them to the program. In the afternoon, they were driven home and the teacher spent time with one of her three assigned families. The program was geared at first to the basic needs of very young children. Unlike in a school, the groups of children resembled four families, with each child relating primarily to the teacher and very little to peers. Twenty-four children and their families were tested, with twelve in the experimental group. The other twelve families were referred to community services. As the children changed over the 2-year demonstration period, the enrichment program became similar to a regular preschool program. It was found that most children showed improvement in cognitive, emotional, and social areas after 3 months. Evaluation of the children showed that those who remained in the program more than 1 year showed a mean intelligence quotient increase of 14, compared to a mean gain of 2 for those who remained less than 1 year and for the control children. In 55 percent of the '1 year plus' families, a parent had moved from social assistance, usually via educational upgrading, to permanent employment, compared to 11 to 22 percent in the other two groups. References are provided.

Stolk, M.V. Child Abuse and Canadian Law. Crime et/and Justice, 1978, 5 (4), pp. 275-293. (Canadian)

The Canadian law regarding child abuse reporting and processing is discussed. The laws vary among the provinces and the definition of child abuse is nonstandard. Although there is evidence that child abuse is widespread in Canada, the traditional concept of the parent as caretaker and the child as the parents' possession interferes with development of effective legal measures to deal with abuse. Criminal prosecution of abusive parents is expensive and time-consuming. Conviction is difficult since witnesses are usually nonexistent or reluctant to testify. Family courts, which hear most of the child abuse cases, are informal and influenced greatly by the attitude of presiding judges. Court records and reports on these proceedings are treated as confidential, and thus, cannot be used to build case law for future reference. A serious difficulty arising in abuse proceedings has been the question of confidential communication between physicians and parents, and in some cases, between psychiatrists or social workers and parents. There is a prevailing belief among these professionals that reporting child abuse cases is a form of meddling, a violation of a confidentiality bond between themselves and the parents, or ultimately works to the detriment of the child. It is recommended that laws be introduced requiring both children and parents to be legally represented in child abuse cases and that an interdisciplinary approach to child abuse cases be developed involving social workers, teachers, public health officials, physicians, and lawyers.

Tormes, Y.M. Child Victims of Incest. Englewood, Co.: American Humane Association, n.d.

The circumstances surrounding father-daughter incest are examined to determine what predisposing factors can be diagnosed and treated at an early stage to prevent their development into a climate receptive to incest. This substudy is part of a larger project to assess the problem of sex victimization of children by adults. The data came from the closed records of families served by the Brooklyn (New York) Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, a private social service agency with quasi-legal functions which the court has empowered to handle cases of physical and emotional child abuse. The intensive study of 20 father-daughter incest cases found that the incestuous act is rarely a single occurrence. Before the behavior is discovered, it has become, in the majority of cases, a permanent part of the family structure. This is contrasted with the rape cases studied, which were nearly all isolated events. In all the incest cases, the mother was either unwilling or unable to control the father's behavior. The sociological and psychological reasons for this are explored, and contrasted with the emotional climate surrounding the rape of a child. Ethnic differences which affect the mother's response are also examined. A major finding is that the incest victim usually does not go to church nor does she have many friends outside the family. Most of the girls had passive personalities and were afraid of their fathers. The outside appearance of stability maintained by the family was found to be a facade covering up a number of other severe problems. Chronic brutality and alcoholism were frequently associated with incest. The case of the contrasting, overly affectionate father is also examined. It is suggested that since the personality of the father dominates the incestuous household, treatment should center on him. A list of nine warning signals are given to help social workers identify families in which the 'incest climate' might appear. The problem of penetrating family defenses is discussed. It is suggested that the incest will be revealed only during family crisis or when some other family problem is being aired.

U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Child Abuse and Neglect - The Problem and Its Management. Vol. I: An Overview of the Problem. Washington, D.C.: author, 1976.

This volume discusses child maltreatment from various perspectives, including characteristics of the parents and children, effects of abuse and neglect, and a psychiatrist's view of the problem. A discussion of state reporting laws is included. It also examines the many problems that make the abuse and neglect of children difficult to comprehend and manage, from problems of definition and incidence to deficiencies within the system of child protection. A nine-page bibliography is included.

Wilcox, P.D. Child Abuse Laws. Past, Present, and Future. Journal of Forensic Science, 1976, 21 (1), pp. 71-75.

The history of child abuse, developments in child abuse detection, and trends in state and federal child abuse laws are reviewed. A

California case in which a father successfully sued four physicians for failing to report attacks that resulted in the permanent disability of his child is cited as an illustration of the importance of reporting child abuse and of the tragedy that can result if protective services are not provided to abused children. An historical overview of child abuse notes the incident of abuse that spurred the founding of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. Developments in medicine that led to identification of the battered child syndrome are outlined. Revisions in state child abuse laws since 1970 are discussed, with emphasis on the extension of reporting requirements to professions other than medicine. A trend toward expanding the definition of child abuse to include both physical abuse and neglect is noted, as is a trend toward requiring that cases of suspected abuse be reported to welfare departments rather than police departments. Other legislative trends relate to statutory immunity for reporting of abuse, waiver of the physician-patient confidentiality privilege in child abuse matters, child abuse registries, the physician's right to hold an abused child against the parent's wishes, and examination and emergency treatment of abused children without parents' consent. State legislative activity is said to reflect a determination to provide whatever laws are necessary to identify and protect all children who are subject to abuse or neglect. The major provisions and funding criteria of the child abuse prevention and treatment act are outlined. The development of a new model child abuse reporting law under a grant from the Department of Health, Education and Welfare to the Institute of Judicial Administration is noted. Professionals are urged to be aware of and act upon their responsibilities in protecting abused and neglected children.

4. Sexual Assault

Amir, M., and Amir, D. Rape Crisis Centres in Ontario: An Appraisal. Ottawa: University of Ottawa, Department of Criminology, 1977. (Canadian)

This study examines rape crisis centres in terms of their organizational character and the services they provide, the processes of their institutionalization, the creation of internal structures and the development of their services. It deals with these centers as services that have a particular socio-political orientation. In fact, the study shows that the ideological and political orientations of the centres are inseparable from their services. As they emerged from the feminist movement, they not only aimed at helping the victims of rape, but also at mobilizing resources to impact on legislation and politics.

Baril, M. Rape and Other Acts of Violence: The Victim's Perspective. American Society of Criminology, November, 1980. (Canadian)

Studies of rape victimization represent the most important contribution made to victimology so far. They are numerous, use a variety of investigation techniques and provide facts and theory. Referring particularly to the feminist analysis of rape as an act of domination of man over woman, an act which is founded upon an unequal distribution of power between sexes in all areas of life, women are trained to be victims, to be submissive and dependent. Rape is one of the results of this very ambiguous, very artificial definition of so-called different roles of men and women in society. The facts presented by feminist studies are sound, and their analyses satisfactory from a scientific perspective. However, the links between facts and theory are often weak. This paper attempts to unify both by comparing rape victims with victims of other acts of violence (eg., armed robbery) seeking similarities and differences in the victimization itself and the social reaction to it. Using unstructured, in-depth interviews of victims of violent crimes, the study shows no major differences in the ways violent crimes are experienced by their victims. The common denominators are violation and domination. The variations are matters of intensity. The social reaction however differs sharply: victims of rape are treated differently than are victims of other violent crimes, mainly because of the social status of women and the symbolism attached to the sexual aggression.

Brickman, J., Briere, J., Lungen, A., Shepherd, M. and Lafchik, M. Winnipeg Rape Incidence Project: Final Results. Paper presented at the meeting of the Canadian Association of Sexual Assault Centres, Winnipeg, 1980.

This paper presents the final results of the Winnipeg Rape Incidence Project, a representative survey of the incidence, circumstances and effects of rape and sexual assault. Results are based on the responses of 551 women, individually sampled in their homes and representing nearly the entire geographic area of the city. Six per cent (1 in 17) of the respondents reported having been raped and 21% (1 in 5) reporting having been sexually assaulted at some point of their lives. Of the victim groups, 12% (rape) and 7% (sexual assault) reported to the police, and under one-half the rape victims and 6% of the sexual assault victims consulted any type of helping professional. The results indicate the extent of the problem, the lack of appropriate services, and the probable inaccuracy of information from institutional sources.

Bryant, G., and Cirel, P. Community Response to Rape: An Examplary Project. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice (LEAA), 1977.

The Polk County (Iowa) Rape/Sexual Assault care centre is described in detail in this study. Providing victims with counselling support, reforming state statutes, coordinating with the prosecution, training and assisting police and medical personnel, and educating the public are the Centre's prime objectives. Since the centre was created, police clearance rates for rape have risen, victims have shown an increasing willingness to press charges, more convictions have occurred, and the state statutes have been revised eliminating some questioning of the victim's past and some need for corroboration. Also included in the study, is an appendix on counselling victims of rape. Described here are their feelings, the difficulties in readjustment, and cases of special rape victims such as the retarded or children.

Byers, E.S. and Eastman, A.M. Characteristics of Unreported Sexual Assaults Among College Women. Canadian Psychological Association, 1978. (Canadian)

In order to investigate the differences between sexual assaults which have and have not been reported to the police, the study examines characteristics of all levels of sexual assaults among 720 randomly selected college women. Thirty-eight per cent of respondents had been victims of sexual assault. In over three-quarters of the incidents, the offender was known to the victim. These victims reported having liked the offenders and having had no misgivings about trusting him prior to the incident. In addition, many of the victims had engaged in sexual activity willingly or unwillingly on previous occasions, and/or had found the offender's initial sexual advances acceptable on the occasion of the assault. Victims reported using a variety of verbal and physical responses during the assault. They described the most effective physical responses as fighting, crying and yelling and pushing the man away. Many victims had never told anyone about the assault, despite having been very upset. Only 4 incidents had been reported to the police resulting in 2 charges. The primary reasons for not reporting the assaults given by victims were that it was a private matter, and that the victim felt herself partially to blame. The present results indicate that sexual assaults not reported to the police differ considerably from police blotter offenses. Offenders tended to be well-known and well-liked by their victims, frequently having been involved in some prior sexual activity with them. The role of miscommunication in sexual assaults between non-strangers is discussed.

Carrow, D. Rape: Guidelines for a Community Response. Report prepared for the U.S. National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, Washington, 1979.

This report describes a program model for a community response to rape. It highlights those activities and approaches which comprise the most effective response, and provides practical guidance on implementation issues and pitfalls. The five general elements of the proposed model are victim services, rape crisis centres, criminal justice response, medical service response and public education. The report concludes with consideration of legal issues, evaluation and program cost concerns.

Clark, L. and Armstrong, S. A Rape Bibliography, with Special Emphasis on Rape Research in Canada. Ottawa: Ministry of the Solicitor General, 1979. (Canadian)

This bibliography is an extension of the work compiled by Chappell et al. ("Forcible Rape: Bibliography," 1974). The bibliography is broken down into three major sections. The first is a subject list which is subdivided into specific topics -- sociology, victim, offender, law, medical and medico-legal, police investigation, rape in non-common law, and rape research in Canada. The other two sections are an author and title list in alphabetical order.

Clark, L. and Lewis, D. Rape: The Price of Coercive Sexuality. Toronto: Women's Press, 1977. (Canadian)

Empirical data relating to the problem of rape in Canada are presented, and academic theories of rape are criticized. Data from 1970 were analyzed on 116 Toronto rape cases which had completed the legal process by the time of the study. Trials are generally based on the credibility of the victim, not on the true nature of the case. Many rape cases are not even reported. The crime itself most often takes place at night, in the warmer months of the year. Many of the rapes involve sex acts other than intercourse and are committed by someone known to the victim. Victims represent a random sampling of all women. The most difficult aspect of this crime is gathering data on rapists. Although all societal characteristics are represented among rapists, most of the men are unemployed and cannot maintain satisfactory sexual self-images. The system of inequalities which has determined the formation and application of rape laws is also the root cause of rape itself. Women and men are not equal in this society, making rape an inescapable byproduct of a system in which sexual relationships are also power relationships, in which female sexuality is a commodity, and in which some men have no source of power except physical force. Several psychological aspects of the rapist are described. The victimology of rape is discussed; the crime is usually blamed on the victim, and the victim is punished if she complains. The authors claim that rape is generally seen as a sex crime, but should be dealt with as an assault, as one form of an unprovoked attack on a person. The logical conclusion of this analysis is that both the laws and the public attitudes toward rape should be changed. In order to eliminate rape, however, the underlying social structures which produce it must be altered.

Cotton, D.J. Male Victims of Sexaul Assault. Patterns of Occurrence, Trauma Reactions and Adaptive Responses. Wright Institute Graduate School, Ph.D. dissertation, 1980.

This study examines the occurrence and impact of sexual assault on noninstitutionalized adult males. The study's theoretical perspective is grounded in the psychology of victimization and trauma. Interviews were conducted with crime victims to ascertain differences in the effects of sexual and physical assault and difference between male and female victims. The interview protocol focused on victim characteristics related to victimization, assault characteristics, and impact in terms of trauma reactions and adaptive responses. Self-report checklists were also administered to assess current measures of stress. The results indicate that all victims showed high levels of stress. The highest stress levels were reported by subjects in the 6 to 12 month period, suggesting a longer and more intense recovery process than the literature indicates. Physical and sexaul assault victims had similar patterns of traumatization, although sexual assault victims showed somewhat more stress and more intrapsychic disruption. Isolation from primary support relationships was a factor common to most victims and was the factor most often associated with impaired recovery. This finding has implications for prevention and treatment programs. The study concludes that a general stress response paradigm is appropriate for traumatization resulting from both physical and sexual assault; such a paradigm can be useful in describing differences in victimization.

Halpern, S. Rape: Helping the Victim. New Jersey: Medical Economics Company, 1978.

Procedures and guidelines for meeting the needs of rape victims are presented in a manual directed toward medical, criminal justice, and other agencies and individuals who deal with victims of sexual assault. Step-by-step procedures, treatment protocols, and related information are described in chapters addressed to specific agencies on the stages of rape victim care: immediate needs, arrival at the emergency room, medical history, medical examination, collection of evidence, venereal disease, pregnancy, exit procedures, the police role, the prosecutor's office, and crisis intervention. Specific treatment protocols for adult and child victims are directed to medical personnel, counsellors, police and prosecutors.

Herold, E.S. and Martle, D. A Study of Sexual Offences against Females. Guelph, Ontario: University of Guelph, n.d. (Canadian)

The objective of this study is to obtain information on sexual offences against females. Data were obtained from 103 females in two university classes. Eighty-four per cent reported having been the victim of a sexual offence. The offences experienced were obscene telephone calls (61%), sexual molestation (44%), exhibitionism (27%), being followed (24%) attempted rape (16%) and rape (1%). Most offences were discussed with friends while very few were reported to parents, police or social workers. The effects of these offences were mainly to create a fear of men and to enhance negative feelings about sex.

Holmes, K.A. and Williams, J.E. Problems and Pitfalls of Rape Victim Research: An Analysis of Selected Methodological, Ethical and Pragmatic Concerns. Victimology: An International Journal, 1979, 4 (1).

This analysis of methodological and ethical issues of rape victim research discusses locating participants, the importance of the initial contact person, advocate versus research role conflicts, and moral concerns. This review of the problem encountered during a 2-year rape research project details reasons why it was easier to interview a stratified sample of over 1000 persons for a public attitude survey than it was to locate 100 rape victims; only 61 victims participated in this study. Bias which is introduced when victims are located through only one source is examined. And it was found that many women gave false addresses to the centre or had transient lifestyles. The problems of trying to track down potential participants without revealing the purpose of the study to family and friends are described. A table lists reasons for victim sample attrition. It was found that the victims expected the researcher to function as a social services worker. The researcher was asked to handle problems ranging from securing food stamps to adjusting rent bills. It was found that rape victims need a great deal of follow-up, and an advocate program is recommended. The ethical-moral concerns discussed include invasion of privacy, the need for back-up counselling for women who become upset with the interview, and screening of patient records to avoid interviews with women who seem suicidal or suffering from severe emotional problems. Many of the women felt better after talking and were glad to participate in research to help others.

Holmes, K.A. Services for Victims of Rape. A Dualistic Practice Model. Social Casework, 1981, 62 (1), pp. 30-39.

This paper presents a dualistic model that utilizes crisis intervention and advocacy strategies for the use of social workers who deal with rape victims. The crisis intervention strategy is based on the principle that a state of crisis experienced by a rape victim is not an illness and does not require a traditional diagnosis-treatment-cure model. Rather, it is a temporary and normal reaction to stress. The crisis intervention worker strives to reduce the immediate impact of the rape and to help the victim regain control. The strategy can be implemented in any or all of the formal service delivery systems with which victims interact. For example, a social worker may help the victim by answering questions and by offering realistic reassurances regarding procedures involved in medical examinations and interviews with a police investigator or prosecutor. The advocacy strategy should be implemented by the social worker when the servies, to which the victim is entitled, are inadequate. To be an effective advocate, the social worker ought to know the policies, regulations, and appeal procedures of the agencies and systems that may have to be confronted. Equally crucial are skills in such areas as organization and public relations. The advocacy strategy may involve case advocacy, i.e., action taken on behalf of a specific client, and class advocacy, i.e., action taken to effect change in policies, practices, or laws affecting all victims. The class advocacy should be implemented when the individual case has not been resolved. However, if, as feminists contend by their definition of the problem, rape represents predatory sexual inequality or a means of social control, then ony the restructuring of society and resocialization, toward sexual equality can be the advocate's final objective. In the interim, the dualistic model can serve to help victims deal more effectively with the existing realities of rape and can improve and humanize the services that they must have.

Holmstrom, L.L. and Burgess, A.W. Victims of Rape: Institutional Reactions. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1978.

Ways in which police, hospitals, and courts respond to rape victims and the impact of their response on the victims are analyzed. A study was conducted of 146 victims with a complaint of rape admitted during a 1-year period to the emergency ward of a large municipal hospital. The victims were followed from their admission to the hospital through the entire legal process. The main purpose of the study was to determine whether victimization can be increased by those institutions which are supposed to help victims. The main sources of data were participant observation and interviews when the victim was admitted to the hospital, weekly follow-up interviews on their emotional problems, and participant observation and discussion at the courthouse. Questions asked and some observations made during the various stages of the process are described. Brief descriptions of many different victims experiences are presented to illustrate the wide discrepancies in treatment. An analysis of the outcome of the court process provides data regarding convictions and acquittals of defendents and factors which affect conviction rates. The author suggests that the victim loses, whatever the outcome of the trial. Finally, policy recommendations for institutional response to rape victims are outlined.

Katz, S. and Mazur, W.A. Understanding the Rape Victim: A Synthesis of Research Findings. New York: Wiley, 1979.

This book summarizes the psychological, sociological and medical research literature on rape up to 1978. The areas covered by the reported research include characteristics of the victims, characteristics of the assault, the nature of the victim-offender relationship and short-term reactions of the victim. The authors indicate that long-term psychological damage associated with rape has not been systematically investigated although many clinicians and victims attest to some permanent damage.

Kaufman, A., Divasto, P., Jackson, R., Voorhees, D., and Christy, J. Male Rape Victims. Noninstitutionalized Assault. American Journal of Psychiatry, 1980, 137 (2), pp. 221-223.

This study focuses on male rape victims in the community, comparing their characteristics with those of female victims. Fourteen male rape victims treated in a county hospital emergency room over a 39-month period were compared with 100 randomly selected female victims treated over the same period. Data sheets including demographic information, specifics of the assault, and the victim's reaction were compiled for each victim. When compared, data showed that the male victims as a group sustained more physical trauma, were more likely to have been a victim of multiple assaults from multiple assailants, and were more likely to have been held captive longer. They were also more reluctant to reveal initially the genital component of their assault and were more likely to use denial and control their emotions in reaction to the assault than the females. Home, social and work life of male victims in the study showed marked instability, far greater than that among female victims. Male victims of sexual assault also seemed in general to be unaffiliated with the homosexual community, and sexual assault of males appeared to be an expression of anger, power, and dominance over the victim. Although little has been written about the effect of rape on males, in spite of its increasing frequency (10 per cent of all rape victims in 1978 were male), it appears that male victims of rape may experience major, hidden trauma.

Kinnon, D. Report on Sexual Assault in Canada. Ottawa: Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women, 1981. (Canadian)

This document provides an overview of available information on sexual assault in Canada. It begins with estimates of the incidence of rape and indecent assault and discusses characteristics of victims and assailants. The effects of rape and assault are then examined, followed by a description of the typical police and medical response to the rape victim. The author then argues for the need for legal and attitudinal change relating to sexual assault. Finally, the role structures and funding of sexual assault centres in Canada are reviewed and recommendations for change are offered.

Krasner, W., Meyer, L.C. and Carroll, N.E. Victims of Rape. Washington: US Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1979.

A 27-month study of the impact of rape on 790 child, adolescent, and adult victims seen at Philadephia General Hospital is reported. The purpose of the study was to examine the social and psychological effects of rape on female victims; to correlate these effects with the circumstances surrounding the rape, the victims personality and the availability of support to the victim; and to determine the effects of the criminal justice system on victims' mental health and adjustment. The victims included young children, adults and a disproportionate number of adolescents. There were three times as many black victims as white victims, and the majority of victims lived in low-income areas. Among findings that dispel stereotypes about rape are the following: rapes were not erotic, sexual acts, but rather acts of brutality and subjugation; rapes were not consensual and usually were not interracial; most rapes took place indoors; and although force was usually implied and very often used, the battered victim was not the norm. Rape had different characteristics in different age groups. Children were molested in their homes by people they knew and trusted, adolescents searching for new experiences and friends were particularly subject to rape and were most often subjected to group rape. Adults were usually raped in their own houses by strangers and were subjected to the greatest violence. The victims underwent two periods of crisis: the rape itself and the events (police investigation, medical examination, etc.) immediately following reporting, and the legal process that ensued if the rapist was identified and caught. Generally medical and legal agencies did not provide victims with the support they needed. In some cases, stereotyped reactions and feelings of shame limited the availability of support from the persons close to the victim. There was considerable evidence that the long-term effects of rape on victims may be more important than the immediate ones.

Meyer, L.C. Rape Cases in Philadelphia. Court Outcome and Victim Response. University of Philadelphia, Doctoral Dissertation, 1979.

This study focuses on the outcome of rape trials and the effects of court proceedings on the victims. An interdisciplinary team of social workers, psychiatrists, attorneys, and criminologists was involved in this project. The study subjects were 1401 female rape victims in Philadelphia, PA., who reported to the police and were brought to a hospital between April 1973 and June 1975. Court data were obtained from the Court Administrators's office. Social workers conducted home interviews to gather information on the particulars of the rape and, on the victim's interaction with the criminal justice systems. The cases either went through a preliminary hearing or directly to the common pleas court. However, one-fifth of the cases did not make it through the preliminary hearings because victims did not show up or were unable to testify. Over one-half of the cases led to a guilty disposition, with one case in four resulting in at least one defendent being sentenced for a period of two to twenty years. Furthermore, rape cases fared nearly as well as robbery or burglary cases in terms of conviction rates. Reasons for non-convictions and for shorter sentences are given. The impact of the trial on the victim is discussed.

Nass, D. Rape Victim. Dubuque, Io.: Kendall Publishing, 1977.

Problems faced by rape victims and therapeutic responses to the rape trauma are discussed in a collection of 14 articles. The writings reflect the idea that the psychological pain experienced by the rape victim arises not only from the event itself, but also from societal factors that tend to exacerbate the victim's suffering. This view suggests a need for two kinds of supportive services: counselling to the victim to help her overcome her sense of unresolved guilt; and education directed at modifying the attitudes of the public. Part I articles discuss such problems as the response of the general public to disclosures involving illicit sex acts; the skepticism of law enforcement, health care and court personnel concerning the rape victim's innocence; and the corroboration demanded for conviction of a defendant in a rape case. Part II articles concern the assessment of the rape situation and the medical and psychological services required by rape victims.

Sanders, W.B. Rape and Women's Identity. Beverly Hills, CA.: Sage Publications, 1980.

Fieldwork done in a metropolitan California police department forms the basis for this examination of rape, the myths associated with rape, the socially assigned roles of police and rape victims, and related issues. A brief introduction to rape and its study provides a context for subsequent chapters which examine rape from a situational-dramaturgic perspective. The situation of rape is explored in a presentation of a typology of situations in which rape occurs. The investigation shows that certain social circumstances permit rape to occur. More detailed aspects of the social situation are also examined, with a focus on the relationships and interactions within the rape situation. The study also deals with the initial societal reaction to rape in the work of the police and the work of police detectives, covering their interaction with the victim and their investigation of rape in the context of a bureaucratic organization. Other topics include an ethnomethodological perspective on police handling of false reports of rape and an explanation of rape in terms of the social role of men and women, as well as an appeal to alter the social consciousness regarding rape. The study proposes several ideas concerning rape, proper victim response, and effective and appropriate social reactions, many of which deviate from popular views. It asserts that women victims should always try to resist, if only for their own self-esteem. It argues that passive women cannot fend off rapists, that rapists are opportunisitic men who give no thought to the harm they do to their victims, and that long-range prevention lies in the reconceptualization of rape and its victims and in the treatment of women as whole human beings.

Saturansky, S.H. Clinical Study of Rape Victims. An Analysis of the Effects of Rape Experiences in Personality Dynamics and Life Styles. Michigan State University, Doctoral Dissertation, 1976.

Nine rape victims were interviewed intensively to determine if they exhibited any common characteristics or differed from women who had not been raped. Rape victims volunteered for the study by responding to notices placed in a public meeting center for women, a feminist bookstore, and newsletter advertisements. The women were interviewed in an unstructured manner, 6 hours over a period of 6 weeks. In addition, participants were administered the Thematic Apperception Tests (TAT) and three Machover Figure Drawings. These tests were also given to a control group of five women who were matched with the rape victim sample and who had never been raped, but all had experienced a traumatic accident at some time in their lives. Experimental group similarities and differences were examined, including those involving background, the rape crisis period, attitudes of family and friends, and dreams. Only the TAT data, however, revealed any significant results. Rape victims told significantly more stories with themes of suicide, negative or aggressive experience with men, and romance or love stories. These romantic stories may represent an attempt to cope with anger and fear toward men by over-romanticizing them. Litigation appeared to be related to some victims' successful post-rape adjustment, possibly because it served to vent rage and restore a sense of control over life. The data also suggested that some women are more severely affected by rape than others, particularly individuals who have difficulty expressing anger or are sexually immature or inexperienced.

Schwendinger, J. and Schwendinger, H. Rape Victims and the False Sense of Guilt. Crime and Social Justice, 1980, 13, pp. 4-17.

Many rape victims suffer from a feeling of false guilt which may hamper their emotional recovery and is caused by the social double standards. Although rape victims often sustain minor physical injuries, the emotional damage is far greater, and the threat of physical injury adds to the emotional impact. Studies have shown that the feeling of fear and helplessness which is present during the act itself is replaced by guilt and self-blame immediately afterwards, which may linger for years and hamper full emotional recovery. The women who suffer most from these guilt feelings are those who have been severely abused, with prior emotional problems, with strict religious backgrounds proscribing non-marital sexual relations, or those who are secretive about their experience. The reason why the rape victim blames herself rather than her assailant is that women in general have been socialized in a sexist society and have internalized discriminatory norms. This internalization takes place through the family, where women are defined as relatively powerless and inferior through economic dependence, and through media enforcement of the stereotypes.

Symonds, H. Rape Victim. Psychological Patterns of Response. American Journal of Psychoanalysis, 1976, 36 (1), pp. 27-34.

The psychological patterns of rape victim response are explored in this study that defines rape as a crime of violence and not a sexual act. Terrorization is the common denominator of all violent crime and is employed by the criminal to insure the immediate compliance of the victim. This is always true in forcible rape. There are two major categories of rapists: the complusive rapists whose goal is the symbolic gratification of unresolved sexual problems, and the predatory criminals whose primary aim is to rip off the victim, taking her property and pride along with her body. Predatory rapists commit the act following robberies and often act in groups. Compulsive rapists want the victim to participate in their symbolic fantasies. The first, immediate response to rape by the victim is shock and disbelief. The vast majority of victims then experience fright bordering on panic. At this point, all the victim's efforts are expended to remain externally calm and not upset the criminal. There is no energy for overt resistance, and the victim feels profoundly exhausted. The behaviour of the vast majority of women during their contact with rapist demonstrates this traumatic psychological infantilism and helplessness. Their response is one of frozen fright which resembles cooperative behaviour, but frozen fright actually has its roots in profound primal terror. The individual submits in order not to be killed. When rape is viewed as a crime of violence, victim behaviour becomes more understandable and can be of immense practical value in police work. When policemen responded sympathetically and compassionately to victim behaviour, the traumatic pyschological consequences for the victim were minimal.

5. Elderly Victims

Boston, G.D. Crime Against the Elderly - A Selected Bibliography. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, 1977.

After an overview of the problem, the first section examines victimization and the fear of crime. The second presents specific defensible space and architectural design concerns and is of particular interest to housing administrators and city planners. The next section covers the older citizen as a volunteer court watcher, counsellor, and volunteer law enforcement officer. The last section presents crime prevention materials that can educate older citizens in how to protect themselves, their property, and their neighbors. The bibliography is arranged alphabetically by author within each section. The appendix contains a list of publisher names and addresses, as well as a resource list of agencies and organizations researching or undertaking projects in the area of crime against the elderly.

Boston, G., Kravitz, H. and Nitzberg, R. Criminal Justice and the Elderly. A Selected Bibliography. Washington, D.C., U.S. Department of Justice, 1979.

Published between 1971 and 1978, the citations are arranged alphabetically by author, title, or journal source within seven sections, each dealing with a selected aspect of senior citizen interaction with crime or the criminal justice community. The first section provides an overview of the vulnerability of older people to crime and social problems and describes the general nature of crimes against the elderly. The following section deals with the impact of crime on the elderly, including studies on fear of crime and the resultant psychological damage and changes in the living patterns of many senior citizens. Subsequent sections cover the patterns and rates of crime against the elderly, the problem of consumer fraud schemes aimed at senior citizens, victim assistance and restitution programs providing elderly crime victims with emotional and financial aid, community programs designed to fulfill crime prevention and other social service needs, and the changing image of senior citizens in terms of their role in the criminal justice system. Information on how to obtain cited documents is provided, along with lists of sources and resource agencies.

Burkhardt, J.E. and Norton, L. Crime and the Elderly. Their Perceptions and Reactions. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, 1977.

Topics discussed during the interviews included individual and family characteristics, attitudes about fear of crime and about police protection, the effects of this fear of crime on daily lives, and experiences (if any) as victims of crime. Interviewees were selected by a telephone random digit dialing technique, and were interrogated in their homes. Demographic data on age, years in neighborhood, and the number of people recognized in the target area were discussed. Twenty-four percent of those elderly persons interviewed had been victimized within the past 5 years, mostly by the crimes of larceny and vandalism. Thus, the typical victim suffers monetary loss, not physical injury. There was no such thing as a "typical" victim except that victims are more likely to reside in the older, more urbanized portion of the target area. This lack of a victimization pattern supports the contention that "anyone could be a victim" and underscores the necessity of precautionary measures for the elderly. The elderly person in Silver Spring is only one-sixth as fearful as the average. Women, nonwhites, the least educated, those living alone, and those who live in apartments are more fearful of crime than others. Most of the elderly who are afraid to go out are specifically afraid of going abroad at night, and consequently they stay indoors and forego normal social lives. Travel during the day is apparently not restricted by the fear of crime. The elderly look to social solutions instead of their own efforts to deter crimes against them, and favor more police protection and stricter punishment for criminals more than twice as often as other solutions. It is recommended that reliable, personalized transportation be provided for elderly without cars. Since most older persons do not take preventive measures until after they have been victimized and they consider themselves safer than they really are, it is suggested that educational programs be aimed specifically at the elderly in order to decrease victimization. If assistance is to be provided, it should focus on both the reduction of fear and the prevention of crime.

Clemente, F. and Kleiman, H.B. Fear of Crime among the Aged. Gerontologist, 1976, 16 (3), pp. 207-210.

National survey data are used to compare the patterns of fear of crime among the aged and the non-aged. Four key specifying variables are used in the analysis - sex, race, socioeconomic status, and size of community. Findings indicate that elderly respondents who were either female, black, or metropolitan residents possess extremely high fear rates. The authors interpret this as a demonstrations that the aged are not a homogenous group but rather that some segments of the older population are fearful while others are relatively free of anxiety.

Coakley, D. and Woodford-Williams, E. Effects of Burgalary and Vandalism on the Health of Old People. The Lancet, 1979, 2, pp. 1066-1067.

This brief paper reviews three case histories of elderly crime victims whose health was adversely effected by the stress associated with their victimization. The authors discuss the general effects of stress on elderly people. They conclude that the stress of burglary and vandalism can precipitate a major health crisis in old age that demands urgent admission to hospital. Further they suggest that despite reassurance and appropriate treatment, many patients never regain enough confidence to return home.

Cook, F.L. and Cook, T.D. Evaluating the Rhetoric of Crisis: A Case Study of Criminal Victimization of the Elderly. Social Service Review, 1976, 50 (4), pp. 632-646.

Since 1971, criminal victimization of the elderly has received increasing attention from scholars, government officials, and journalists. To determine whether the language of crisis is appropriate in describing the status of victimization of the elderly, it is necessary to define crisis. Four definitions of crisis are presented that concern the relative frequency of victimization, increases in the rate of victimization, the relative severity of consequences, and the relative fear of being victimized. The best social science data on the frequency of victimization come from national surveys of representative samples. A survey was conducted by the National Opinion Research Center in 1966 and showed that the elderly are least likely to be victims of most classes of crime. Another survey, authorized by the L.E.A.A. and conducted in 1973, had results similar to the 1966 survey. Interpretations of the age effect in these survey data could have been due to the reduced number of crime catagories that apply to the elderly, the inability of the effect of age to be distinguished from the effect of sex, the confusion of age with race, and reporting biases inherent in evaluating age differences in victimization. Evidence from the two surveys did not suggest that victimization of the elderly is increasing at a faster rate than victimization of other age groups. In 1966, the elderly were least likely to be victims of aggravated assault. In 1973, the elderly were least likely to be victims of aggravated assault, simple assault, and robbery with injury. Fear of crime appeared to have increased at a faster rate among the young during the survey years. Of all age groups the young were the most likely to be victimized. Victim income was negatively related to being the victim of violent crimes but was positively related to being the victim of nonviolent crimes. Blacks were more heavily victimized than whites. It is suggested that victimization of the elderly may be more properly identified as a problem of fear rather than of actual victimization.

Cook. F.L., Cook, T.D., Skogan, H.G., and Antunes, G.E. Criminal Victimization of the Elderly: The Physical and Economic Consequences. Gerontologist, 1978, 18 (4), pp. 338-349.

A congressional report on elderly crime victimization concluded that the elderly suffer disproportionately in qualitative measures from crime victimization, and that physical, economic, and environmental factors associated with aging increase vulnerability to attack and magnify the impact of victimization. This current consensus about crime and elderly Americans is examined using national survey data gathered by the United States Census Bureau in 1973 and 1974. Ten thousand households were visited each month and their members were interviewed on crime occurrence. Relative and absolute measures of economic and physical consequences of crime were used as dependent variables. Findings on financial losses show that the elderly are less likely than others to be involved in crime, lose less than young people, but the same as or more than other adults. The evidence suggests that the elderly are attacked less often than others, are more likely to be injured when attacked, suffer wounds and broken bones and teeth less than others, and suffer internal injuries and cuts and bruises more than others. They are no more likely than others to require medical care, or more costly care after an attack. However, the costs of care constitute a considerably larger proportion of their income than in the case of other groups. The current consensus on crime and the elderly is inappropriate and not current for most crime, and it is incomplete since it fails to differentiate between age trends for different types of consequences. Reasons for the existence of the incorrect consensus are discussed. The explanation for the high fear of crime among the elderly perhaps reflects their condition of relatively low income. Policy suggestions include compensation for lost property for the elderly or for all persons suffering from physical or property crimes.

Culp, M., and Calvin, M. Victim Services Programs. In M. Young Rifai (ed.) Justice and Older Americans. Lexington, Ma.: Heath Col, 1977.

This book chapter discusses the elements of an effective program of victim services for elderly victims. The authors argue that victim service programs can be guided by two distinct goals: the provision of direct assistance of victims of crime regardless of whether a suspect is involved; and improvement of the treatment of victims and witnesses by members of the criminal justice system. To pursue these goals, victim services programs can provide case progress information, victim advocacy and crisis intervention services, community resource identification and referral, property release assistance, financial restitution, and counselling since many victim services programs find that a disproportionate number of their clients are over age 60. Victim services programs can provide greater support to this age group by working closely with police departments, perhaps by receiving all reports of purse snatchings, and pickpockets, assaults involving serious physical injury, and other crimes against elderly persons. Program staff members can then contact the elderly victim and offer assistance. Immediate contact, constant reassurance, and full recognition of physical limitations are vital components of a victim services program for elderly persons.

Donovan, C.H. Crimes Against the Elderly. A Blueprint for Action. Hartford, Conn.: Connecticut Justice Commission, 1978.

The report is based on data from research studies and surveys conducted throughout the United States, on victimization data from police departments in Connecticut, on a review of the literature, and on reports of crime prevention programs throughout the country and in Connecticut. The extent and nature of crimes against the elderly and the impact of victimization on the elderly is compared to the situation for other age groups. Crime prevention efforts targeted specifically at the elderly are assessed in terms of their structure and effectiveness. Problem areas that need to be addressed in Connecticut if the crime-related problems of the state's elderly citizens are to be alleviated are identified, and strategies for solving the problems are suggested. The strategies have to do with improving residential security, strengthening laws and programs, becoming more sensitized to the needs of older persons, and providing assistance to the elderly victims of crime. Policymakers are reminded that the proportion of older persons in the population is increasing and that, due to better education, increased political involvement, and the women's movement, the elderly citizens of the future are likely to exert considerable influence on public policy. It is recommended that older persons be viewed not as the source of a victimization problem but as a resource in solving the problem.

Dussich, J.P. Overview of Elderly Victimization. Paper presented at the Southern Conference on Gerontology in Tampa, Florida, 1979.

The paper examines theories on elderly persons' vulnerability to crime, institutional abuse, prevention strategies, and victim services for the aging. Researchers have identified the elderly population as being more socially isolated, tending to live in urban areas, depending on public transportation, and following predictable behaviour patterns. The physical and mental weaknesses caused by old age also contribute to the visibility of a potential victim. Other theories claim that the elderly only become vulnerable to crime when they leave the protection of their homes, exposing weaknesses to persons with criminal intent. Contrary to popular belief, the elderly are the least victimized age group for the major index crimes but are disproportionately victimized by purse snatching. Burglary, robbery, and fraud are the crimes most frequently committed against the elderly. Older individuals placed in extended care facilities may be physically abused or defrauded of personal possessions by staff members. The failure of family and friends to visit patients frequently not only causes emotional suffering but also permits abuse to continue. Fear of crime is a major problem for the elderly and has increased over the last decade. This can be attributed in part to sensationalistic reporting by the media which leads older people to perceive that high rates of crime exist when in actuality they may not. The increase in the numbers and militancy of the elderly population along with rising crime has forced the Government to fund victimization studies, prevention programs, and victim services. Most prevention activities include public education, neighborhood watches, improved external lighting, provision of escort services, home security inspections by police, and public information on fraud schemes. Victim advocate programs which help the victim immediately after the crime and provide followup services could be adapted to elderly victims; only a few cities have programs specifically directed at older victims. All victim programs should offer comprehensive services ranging from transportation to counselling, give priority to victims' needs over the criminal justice system, and terminate help only when a victim has reasonably recovered from the incident. A bibliography of 25 references and a list of victim advocate projects are appended.

Ernst, H., Friedmen, H.J. and Freudiger, P. *Perceptual Variance Between Elderly Victims and Non-Victims of Crime.* Presented at the Southwest Social Science Convention, Houston, Texas, 1978.

From data obtained in interviews with 466 elderly respondents it was determined that attitudinal differences result from the experience of criminal victimization, and that attitudes affect subsequent actions of the victims. Significant differences were noted among respondents in the categories of non-victims, victims reporting crimes, and victims not reporting crimes. A higher degree of vindictiveness was noted among those respondents who did not report their victimization than among those who did make such reports. Although it could be felt that the more vindictive person would be more likely to notify the police of a crime, the researchers believe that the act of reporting diffuses some of the anger of the victims, and that the failure to report may lead to an increased frustration. Victim-reporters were also found to exhibit less tendency of social isolation than those who fail to report. Attitudes concerning social responsibility and personal control are significantly different between the groups. It is noted that multiple victims of crime appear to have lesser feelings of retribution and social isolation than do single crime victims. The investigators feel that these conclusions reflect the more active lifestyle of the multiple crime victims.

Fletcher, P. *Criminal Victimization of Elderly Women: A Look at Sexual Assault.* New York: Syracuse Rape Crisis Centre, 1977.

Fear of other people finding out about the rape, major alteration of lifestyle, increased feelings of helplessnes, feelings of confusion, feelings about her sexual identity and a greater chance of physical traumatization as a result of the assault are listed as factors to be considered in counselling elderly rape victims.

Fontana, A. Ripping Off the Elderly: Inside the Nursing Home. In Johnson, J.H. and Douglas, J.D. (eds). *Crime at the Top: Deviance in Business and the Profession.* Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1978.

Generally the quality of convalescent centers varies inversely with their proximity to a large city; the greater the distance from governmental inspectors, the less likely an exemplary convalescent center. The center under study was a locked-door facility in which a number of patients were officially defined as suffering from mental illness; the others were old, frail, and unloved by relatives. Inappropriate or illegal actions by staff or management went beyond financial misappropriations. The center exhibited many forms of deviance which were normalized and done for the sake of the organization. The goal of the center was a smoothly operating work flow, thus minimizing disturbances. Many deviant acts perpetrated by patients on other patients or by the staff members on patients were handled in ways that minimized their disruption of routine, or were even normalized. Rule-keeping was a formal rationale, but all could be informally broken to maintain order. Drugs were the main tools for enforcing control; medications were prescribed on an "as needed" basis which left their administration to the nurses who in turn relied on aides' suggestions about patients' behaviour. Sexual and violent misbehaviour was either ignored or normalized such that interference with routine was avoided. To maintain order, the staff allowed patients to be teased by other patients and condoned behaviour which brutalized the weak. The patients, who are the victims of this system, are considered deviants: they are deviants if they are senile (a definition that allows the home to obtain extra money from medicaid); deviant if they are restless (agitated behaviour); deviant if they are moody (manic depressive behaviour); and deviant if they are angry (hostile behaviour). Ironically, the patients come to believe the staffs' view, and see other patients as deviants, a condition which enforces isolation from other patients and from staff who have no time for them.

Gassel, P.H. Nursing Home Law. In Weiss, J.A. (ed) Law of the Elderly. New York: Practicing Law Institute, 1977.

Categories of nursing homes -- skilled nursing facilities, intermediate care facilities, residential care facilities -- are identified along with federal and state standards which must be met for public funding through medicare, medicaid, and similar programs. Reasons underlying patient vulnerability are discussed (i.e. weakened physical condition, isolation, fear of reprisals) followed by details on patient rights, including the right to a normal environment, freedom from constraints, medical treatment, freedom from reprisals, protection from forced labor, the right to leave, the right to services, and the right to manage personal finances. Federal and state roles in enforcing standards of care are outlined regarding inspections, deficiencies, cost data disclosures, investigations of conditions, and the patient's right of access to channels of communication. The use of litigation in safeguarding patient rights is assessed in terms of damages, suits against government agencies, fair hearings, and private advocacy. Factors to be considered in choosing a nursing home include costs, services, and medicare and medicaid qualifications. Alternatives to nursing home care (i.e., home health care and therapy options) are reviewed. Finally, the issue of involuntary transfer is broached, with emphasis on utilization review procedures and transfer trauma. Court decisions, federal statutes, and other reference sources are footnoted.

Goldsmith, J. and Goldsmith, S. Crime and the Elderly. Lexington, Mass: D.C. Heath, 1976.

The national Conference on Crime Against the Elderly, held June 5-7, 1975 in Washington, D.C., was the first national forum to address the problem of the criminal victimization of older persons. The conference was designed to bring together concerned practicioners and scholars in the areas of aging services and criminal justice to share information and discuss the problem of crime against the aging and approaches to reduce the criminal victimization of the aging. This book contains 16 papers presented at the conference. The selections illustrate several dimensions of the problem -- patterns of victimization, the plight of the older victims and the response to the problem. Although the various authors have differing approaches and major concerns, the underlying theme is that crime and fear of crime dramatically and often tragically affect the quality of life for millions of older Americans.*

Goldsmith, J. et al. Crime and its Impact on the Elderly. In Nicholson, G. et al. (eds) Forgotten Victims: An Advocates Anthology. Sacramento, Calif.: California District Attorneys.

Six short articles discuss the problems of elderly victimization. It is argued that from a victim-centered perspective, the several dimensions of the distinctive nature of crime against the elderly include the differential physical impact, the differential economic impact, the differential vulnerability and ability to resist and the psychological impact of fear of crime. Further, there is a growing consensus that the older victim is part of a special victim subgroup which requires special attention and a different kind of response. Some form of victim advocacy for older victims of crime is needed within the local criminal justice community. In contrast, it is argued that the crisis mentality that has developed concerning elderly victimization, coupled with increased elderly populations, presents invalid challenges for the criminal justice community. It is argued that available data do not support common assumptions about elderly vulnerability, at least with respect to intellectual and social competence, social isolation, and crisis response; that headlining elderly victimization may serve to obscure less obvious, though equally severe problems; and that affixing the crisis label on the criminal victimization of the elderly makes discussion and evaluation of appropriate intervention policies and practices difficult. In contrast to this, it is argued that because older people are less strong and less able to resist, very often receive social security or pension cheques on widely known dates, and are often isolated and concentrated in urban high crime areas, they are necessarily more susceptible to victimization and fear of crime than other groups and deserve special consideration both with respect to services and the punishment of the offenders. A new sentencing procedure for offenders in California would allow for the special handling of designated types of offenders, including those victimizing the elderly. Other efforts on both the state and Federal levels have sought to impose stricter terms for elderly victimization and the automatic waiver to adult court of 16 and 17 year olds charged with a crime against elderly persons known to be 65 years or older at the time of the crime. Legislation and court decisions are cited and discussed.

Groth, A.N. The Older Rape Victim and Her Assailant. Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry, 1978, 11 (2).

Specific data relating to the rape of older women is presented, as obtained from existing literature on the subject and from data derived from clinical interviews and case records. Many rape victims are significantly older than their assailants, and elderly women may be particular target victims for some rapists. The Center for the Diagnosis and Treatment of Sexually Dangerous Persons in Massachusetts has provided data pertaining to the offender, his offense, and his victim in rape cases. Analysis of the information revealed that of the 170 offenders participating in the evaluation, 18 percent had victimized women who were significantly older than themselves. (i.e. the victim was at least twice the age of the assailant), and 12 percent of the offenders selected victims over the age of 50. The offenders were predominantly young, white, single males ranging in age from 12 to 38. All of the subjects showed difficulty with life-adjustment tasks in early adolescence or before. Quality of family life was generally poor for the offender and the family structure unstable. The 42 victims ranged in age from 32 to 81. The majority of victims were sexually assaulted either in their own homes or in their own automobiles by complete strangers. One of the most prominent characteristics of the assaults was the degree of violence exhibited in the offenses: the majority of offenders seriously injured their victims. Psychological distress at the time of offense was noted, but the role of alcohol or drugs remained ambiguous. It appears that age is no defense against rape. Moreover, the older sexual victims are often targets of particularly brutal assaults. The older woman appears to symbolize an authority figure over whom the offender wants control.

Gubrium, J.F. Victimization in Old Age: Available Evidence and Three Hypotheses. Crime and Delinquency, 1974, 20 (3), pp. 245-250.

It is contended that available evidence on victimization and its relationship to age does not support the popular belief that the aged are most frequently victimized. However, the evidence does support the hypothesis that older people have a greater risk than others of becoming victims of various kinds of fraud and malice. The author defines two types of environments for the elderly - "the unprotected" single family home and the "protected" multi-unit apartment building. Three hypotheses are proposed. The first states that the extent of victimization of the elderly is greater in nonprotective environments. The second hypothesis states that concern about the extent of crime is greater among aged persons residing in protective, age-homogeneous housing. Finally, the author suggests that among the aged, fear of crime is likely to be greater in non-protective, age-heterogeneous housing.

Hahn, P.H. Crime Against the Aging. Santa Cruz: Davis Pub. Co., n.d.

The impact of fear of crime and actual victimizations are discussed with respect to the life style, health, self concept, and mental stability of the elderly. It is noted that the elderly who are prone to victimization by reason of their limited mobility, decreasing physical ability and loneliness, have a high risk of victimization for such crimes as robbery, purse snatching, and fraud. While the aging are often victims of street crime, they may also be victimized by family, friends, health care personnel, or unscrupulous attorneys. The author urges that crime against the elderly be given special attention, and describes the response of several agencies to this problem. Finally, possible crime prevention methods are outlined, including provision of social services to the elderly, public education on crime prevention for the elderly, improvement of public transportation, and special treatment of the elderly by the criminal justice system.

Hahn, P.H. Crimes Against the Elderly: A Study in Victimology. Santa Cruz: Davis Publishing Co., 1976.

Four major elements of crime against the aging are discussed -- the widespread, intense fear of being criminally victimized, the physical, emotional and financial effects of crime against the elderly, the special vulnerability to criminal victimization of our elderly citizens, and the high incidence of crime of certain types, such as "con games" and consumer fraud, especially in certain geographical areas and under specific circumstances. It is suggested that the criminal justice system recognize crime committed against elderly victims as a "special category" and address it with all the intensity and specialized methodologies which crime in other special categories receives. Proposals for effectively dealing with crime against the elderly include the use of senior citizen volunteers in the criminal justice system, compensation for senior citizen crime victims, and mandatory minimum sentences for those committing offenses against the elderly.

Hahn, P.H. Crime against the elderly: A challenge to the criminal justice system. Presented at the Institute of Contemporary Corrections and Behavioural Sciences, 12th Annual Interagency Workshop, 1977.

The vulnerability of the elderly to crime is seen to lie in the following socioeconomic and physical characteristics frequently associated with the aged: physical and social isolation, residence in low-income housing units and neighborhoods with high crime rates, lack of physical strength to defend against attack, visibility of physical weakness, observable patterns associated with the cashing of social security cheques, and emotional and mental weakness. The most devastating effects of crime against the aged are considered to be physical damage and suffering, financial cost, emotional trauma, and a restricted lifestyle due to fear. The Bronx senior citizens robbery unit is cited as an effective law enforcement attack upon robbery of senior citizens. The unit publishes a crime alert bulletin among senior citizens to describe the methods of operation and the locations where crimes are being committed. The unit also gears its methods of investigating robberies to the needs of the elderly. This includes the bringing of photographs of prime suspects to the homes of victims to save them the inconvenience of travelling to the precinct. A telepone-alert system has also been devised with the cooperation of the district attorney's office, whereby the plaintiff remains home on telephone-alert to be brought to court only when an appearance is absolutely essential. Crime prevention lectures are delivered at senior citizen gatherings, and cooperation between the agencies dealing with the problems of the elderly is coordinated. Victim compensation programs for the elderly are also recommended, whereby the state will compensate the victim for losses regardless of whether or not the offender has the ability to pay. Caution is urged in trying to deal with the problem by increasing the harshness of sentences. Confinement is recommended for habitual and violent offenders, but community-based corrections is suggested as the most effective rehabilitative approach.

Hofrichter, R. Victim Compensation and the Elderly: Policy and Administrative Issues. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, 1978.

The study involved an examination of state and federal legislation, rules and procedures of victim compensation boards, and claim statistics. Literature on victim compensation was reviewed, and personnel in compensation and assistance programs were interviewed. The special problems of elderly victims are pointed out. Policy issues (structure and administration of programs, scope of coverage, eligibility) and administrative issues (filing, processing, reviewing claims) are analyzed, with emphasis on identifying obstacles that restrict elderly victims' ability to be lawful claimants for compensation, to learn of the existence of compensation programs, to apply for compensation and have their claims processed, and to receive their full entitlement as quickly as possible. The analysis shows that only a relatively narrow class of victims is eligible for reimbursement, that only a small percentage of the intended beneficiaries ever learn about the existence of compensation programs, that a majority of the few victims who apply for benefits never receive an award, and that recipients of awards usually must wait for 3 months to a year to receive reimbursement. Factors that reduce the effectiveness of victim compensation programs have to do with the lack of public awareness of the programs, and with delays and denials that stem from compensation laws and regulations and from day-to-day claims processing problems. These obstacles affect all victims, but are particularly troublesome for the infirm, the poor, the inarticulate, and the socially isolated. A substantial number of elderly victims fall into these categories. Victim compensation programs should provide a personalized service that reaches out to and supports eligible victims. Victim compensation programs should be linked with victim assistance programs so that every client is assured comprehensive benefits and services.

Jayewardene, C.H.S., Juliani, T.J. and Talbot, C.K. The Elderly as a Victim of Crime. Ottawa: Department of Justice, 1982. (Canadian).

This document constitutes a literature review and a theoretical assessment of various issues of elderly victimization. Its main goal is to set the tone for a study of programs for elderly victims, with emphasis on programs involving the elderly in the planning process. This essay considers the different issues usually raised in describing elderly victimization, from the statistical and theoretical issues of victimization surveys and measure of attitudes, to actual indicators of the impact of crime on the elderly's psychological, physical, and financial situation. It concludes that findings are contradictory but that in face of the relatively low frequency of elderly victimization in Canada, the problem that needs be addressed is the fear of crime which is enhanced by the social environment.

Jones, D. Elderly Victimization: A Survey Report. Ottawa: Royal Canadian Mounted Police, 1980. (Canadian)

This paper discusses the topic of victimization of the elderly with the aims of alerting police officers to a growing problem, and assisting them in identifying the scope of the problem in their specific locales. The impact of fear of crime and financial constraints on the elderly are examined. Finally, suggestions for preventive programming are offered.

Kahana, E. et al. Perspectives of Aged on Victimization, Ageism and Their Problems in Urban Society. Gerontologist, 1977, 17 (2), pp. 121-129.

The sample consisted of 402 subjects, aged 65 or over, drawn from 2 distinct Michigan communities, Hamtramck and Oak Park. Within each of these communities, two separate subsamples were selected, one from the community and another from subsidized housing sites. A sample of 154 subjects were drawn from the voter registration lists of Hamtramck, an autonomous city surrounded by Detroit, with concentrations of elderly persons of Polish and Ukranian Catholic background, and a growing number of young black families. The public housing sample was selected from a housing site which has assigned 127 out of 300 units to senior citizens. From the voter registration lists of Oak Park, a northwestern suburb of Detroit with a heavy concentration of older people of Jewish background and lower-middle socioeconomic level, 148 subjects were selected, and 53 randomly selected from an apartment complex housing 168 senior citizens. Through personal interviews, subjects were asked to report actual or perceived social victimization in the following major problem areas: Personal victimization or rejection, including items such as mandatory retirement or other form of employment, problems in purchase of service or repairs, discrimination by clubs, and lack of attention from family and friends; problems with agencies or organizations; and neighborhood problems, such as problems with teenagers, undesirable neighbors, city services, and crime on the street. Survey findings did not indicate significant actual or perceived discrimination or rejection by employers, agencies, family, or friends; however, community and neighborhood problems, including fear of crime, were shown to be of primary concern for urban aged.

Main, B. and Johnson, A. Whole Person After Sixty: Crime and the Elderly. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1978.

This report reviews research and programs directed toward crime against the elderly and identifies areas of priority for possible state intervention. The approach of the project was to review the literature and current practices pertaining to the elderly: National survey data indicate that older people have relatively low victimization rates, but statistics may not accurately reflect the crime problems of older persons. The FBI uniform crime report does not include the age of the victim. One survey report indicates that older males, either white or nonwhite, are more likely to be victims of criminal acts. Although the extent of crime against the elderly is lower than for other age groups, older persons suffer disproportionately in terms of physical, psychological, and financial hardship. They take longer to heal when injured and since they are usually on a fixed income, they may be unable to pay for necessities (food, rent, medical bills) if they are robbed. Fear of being victimized may be more of a problem for the elderly than the extent of the crime itself. Research indicates that fear of crime is expressed more often by older women than by men; older blacks express more fear than whites; older people at lower socioeconomic levels express more fear than those at higher levels; and older people living in larger cities are more fearful than those living in smaller towns and rural areas. Reasons for the fear of being victimized include lack of environmental control, physical and social vulnerability, living alone, and behavior shifts. Programs to reduce crime and provide assistance to older victims include emergency shelter, 24-hour social services, victim compensation, protection against reprisals, direct deposit financing, education in self-defence and survival, protective measures in the home, better street lighting, escort services, and voluntary self-help organizations. State planning agencies are required under the Crime Control Act of 1976 to develop programs to protect the elderly against crime. As of July 1978, more than half the states had developed programs, which include statewide public education, provision for police units, and expert and technical services to the community. Footnotes and an appendix are provided.

Malinchak, H.H. Crime and Gerontology. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1980.

This book discusses the impact of longevity on the criminal justice system and describes what is currently being done for the aged. Its six chapters cover different aspects of the relationship between crime and the aged. The first discusses the elderly as victims of crime, prevention programs for the elderly, their role as volunteers in the justice system and their criminality. Other chapters deal with the extent and nature of victimization, the necessity of prevention programs, and ways to encourage an active rather than passive role for the elderly in the justice system. The concluding chapter recommends that strategies for continuing education of the elderly and for improving elderly crime reporting be designed to improve the situation of the elderly in American society.

Milwaukee County Community Relations-Social Development. Extent and Consequences of Victimization of the Older Adult Population. Milwaukee, Mi: Author, 1976.

Much of the doubt concerning the notion that the older adult is a serious victim of crime stems from data derived from the national panel surveys conducted under the LEAA. According to these surveys, the elderly population (65 years or older) was found to have the lowest victimization rate of all age groups. However, the following limitations are inherent in these surveys: the general figures tend to mask certain crimes which affect the elderly and fail to indicate increases in elderly victimization; the generality of the sample data presented do not allow for the exploration of differences occuring within particular geographic areas or cities; the methodology of the panel surveys, while basically sound, fails to include crimes which especially victimize the elderly and to deal with the problem of underreporting; the elderly, especially the elderly poor, are particularly vulnerable to crime and to the suffering that results from victimization; and in addition to actual victimization, fear of victimization is more prevalent among older adults. The closer one moves toward the inner city, the higher the prevalence of fear, a factor which lowers both the morale and physical mobility of elderly persons.

Quay, H., Johnson, V., McClelland, K., Perry, P., Faletti, M. and Spencer, F. The Economic, Social and Psychological Impact on the Elderly Resulting from Criminal Victimization. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Society of Criminology, San Francisco, 1980.

This paper summarizes the results of an extensive study of the effects of victimization on the elderly. Both survey and police data were collected and analyzed for over 2000 elderly crime victims in Florida. The research examined psychological, financial, physical, and social impacts of the victimization. The victim's view of the system and planned use of preventive measures were also looked at. The results indicated that for almost 25 per cent of the victims, the crime had no appreciable impact, while about 30 per cent of the victims reported some serious impact of their victimization. Detailed analysis indicated that, in general, victim ratings of the seriousness of the impact of the crime was not related to extent of financial losses. Finally, the results of a four to six month follow-up indicated that the impacts of the victimization were not diminishing rapidly.

Rifai, M.A.Y. Research on Crime and Older Adult: Present and Future Trends. Wilsonville, Or: Applied Systems Research and Development, 1976.

The incidence and effects of crimes committed against older adults are described. The article also discusses crime prevention programs for elderly and recommends areas for future research. Recent research indicates that crimes committed against persons over 60 are not more prevalent than crimes against younger persons as was previously believed. However, street crime and fraud do have the greatest impact on the elderly. Details given concerning the characteristics of elderly victims show that low income, physical incapacity, solitary living conditions, and fear do not increase the older citizen's vulnerability to crime. The degree of social isolation, however, is directly proportional to the amount of fear. Although most older adults are strong supporters of the police and have a higher rate of reporting crime than other groups, reporting by the elderly is still far from complete. Little research has been conducted on the problems experienced by older crime victims, but studies indicate that these individuals suffer greater and longer lasting trauma than other groups. Programs which try to educate the elderly in crime prevention techniques, increase their rapport with the police, and assist victims are described and evaluated. Further research should assess the impact of crime on the elderly, and programs should view senior citizens in relation to the community and the services provided.

Rifai, M.A.Y. Justice and Older Americans. Lexington, Mass: D.C. Heath, 1977.

This book is a collection of papers presented at a national conference of practitioners and academics from the fields of law, gerontology, and law enforcement. Discussed were methods and programs for dealing with the criminal and social victimization of older adults. Following an introductory discussion of perspectives on justice and older Americans, eight articles discuss the victimization of the elderly. Included are papers on crimes against the elderly, the fear of crime among urban elderly, consequences of crime for minority elderly, victimization on Portland's skid row, social victimization of the elderly, social victimization in nursing homes, drug problems of the elderly, and the legal profession and the elderly. Papers on society's response to the victimization of older Americans discuss legal services, person-centred service delivery, nonlawyer delivery of legal services, criminal justice responses to the problems of old age, victim services programs, residential security techniques, and evaluation of victim assistance programs. Other presentations discuss age and the future of American politics, the microsociology of politics and aging, law, justice, and public policy.

Sengstock, H.C. and Liang, J. Responses of the Elderly to Criminal Victimizations. Washington, D.C.: National Retired Teachers Association, 1977.

Following a review of the elderly's attitudes toward reporting crimes and effects of victimization, data is presented which focuses on the responses of elderly persons to the experience of being a victim of personal crime. The elderly appear to be reluctant to report a crime to the police because of fear of retaliation, confusion and embarrassment following the incident, and excessive expense. The victimization experience generates fear among both elderly victims and nonvictims. Fear of crime often causes victims to decrease their social activities and the resulting isolation increases anxiety about crime and the probability of revictimization. The elderly also react to victimization with protective measures such as more locks and marking personal property. Since aging individuals usually live on fixed income and have little insurance, their property losses from crime may never be recouped. Studies on confrontations between victims and offenders have found a lack of resistance on the part of the elderly victim. This passive image was confirmed by an analysis of data taken from the LEAA's 1976 National Crime Survey (NCS) on responses by victims 60 years and older involved in crimes in which there was personal contact between victim and offender. Although only 11 percent of all elderly victims were subjected to personal crimes, this type of attack is most feared. About half the victims did not respond directly to the offender, while only 20 percent confronted the offender through physical force or reasoning. Elderly persons were more likely to use protective measures when the crime was serious. Married individuals and those living in smaller communities were most likely to take some protective steps. Previous studies have sugggested that victims may incur more injuries if they attempt to defend themselves. Analysis of the NCS data showed that while victims of more serious crimes were likely to be hurt, screaming, running away, and reasoning with the offender were frequently successful in preventing injury to the elderly victim.

Sundeen, R.A. Fear of Crime and the Urban Elderly. Paper presented at the National Bicentennial Conference on Justice and Older Americans. Portland, Oregon, 1976.

The study focussed on the fear of or anxiety about criminal victimization rather than the actual victimization of the elderly. Examined were the relationships between characteristics and circumstances of urban older people and the fear of specific kinds of crime and their feelings of safety in their immediate neighborhoods during the day and evening. Summarily, the conclusions indicated that high levels of fear of robbery and burglary are related to non-participation in community affairs, prior victimization, self-perceived ill health, and the unlikelihood of neighbors calling the police after witnessing a crime in the neighborhood. In contrast to prior studies cited in the text, findings from this study indicate that sex, age, and income do not play a substantial explanatory role but prior victimization does in terms of the levels of fear of specific kinds of crime.

Sundeen, R.A. and Mathieu, J.T. Fear of Crime and its Consequences among the Elderly in the Urban Communities. Gerontologist, 1977, 16 (3).

Fear of crime among 104 elderly in three southern California communities was studied through the collection of data concerning physical and social environments, perception of safety, and fear of crime and precautions taken. It was found that the central city group tends to manifest most fear, which is inversely associated with social support variables. In the retirement community, fear of robbery and burglary is inversely associated with perception of safety.

U.S. Congress Subcommittee on Aging. *Legal Services for the Elderly. Hearings before the Senate Sub-Committee on Human Resources.* Washington, D.C., 1977.

The oral testimony, prepared statements, and exhibits fall into three categories: a listing of the special legal needs of the elderly, descriptions of the efforts of the Legal Services Corporation and other legal aid services to meet these needs, and a discussion of the best way to administer the additional funds necessary to extend legal services to the elderly. Most of the speakers agree that the elderly have special legal needs because they utilize so many government programs; they often must cope with social security problems, probate problems, and medicaid problems requiring special legal knowledge. Their income often falls just above the poverty line, which makes them ineligible for many existing legal aid services. Testimony from the Legal Services Corporation gives an overview of its special efforts to reach the elderly in some cities and states. It is pointed out that these efforts are not comprehensive due to lack of funds. The question is raised concerning whether special legal services should be provided for the elderly as opposed to expanding legal aid for the poor in general. The raising of the income limits for legal aid services is also suggested. The Administration on Aging has supported a number of legal services projects for older persons with title III funds. These are described in the testimony, and a listing is included in the appended materials. This listing also includes a bibliography. Letters supporting the proposed legislation and a series of questions and answers about the bill are also included.

U.S. Congress House Select Committee on Aging. *Research into Crime against the Elderly* (Part 1). Joint Hearings. Washington, D.C., 1978.

Witnesses included scholars in the fields of criminal justice, sociology, and gerontology. Opening statements discuss the fear of crime among the elderly that forces them to become recluses, the relationship of juvenile delinquency and crime against the elderly, and several bills aimed at compensating elderly crime victims and increasing research into the problem. Influences on the outcome of research findings, difficulties in interpretation of statistics on elderly crime victims, and the impact of social conditions among the elderly in relation to victimization are subjects considered by the witnesses. It is proposed that many of the programs and research dealing with crime against the elderly are not effective because the broad social and economic issues are not being considered and sporadic local programs are not coordinated on a larger basis.

Venters, K. and Thompson, R.D. Crime and the Senior Citizen. A Victimization Study of the Elderly in Chattanooga. Nashville, Tennesse: Tennesse Law Enforcement Planning Agency, 1978.

The questionnaire selected for this survey is entitled "Crime and the Senior Citizen". It was developed by the Technical Research Services Division of the International Association of Chiefs of Police. A total of 1,003 usable replies were received from the target group during the survey period, May 1977 through March 1978. Of this number, 120 respondents (about 12 percent) indicated that they had been victims of crime. Respondents were divided by age into two categories: 60 through 69 and over 70. The 60-69 age group (42 percent) reported being more active and self-sufficient than the persons over 70, which concurs with other research findings. Both groups reported experiencing strong feelings of insecurity regarding their personal safety at night. A higher proportion of those over 70 reported that they never felt safe. Crime also hampered freedom of movement more for those over 70. Theft of property was the most frequently reported crime for both groups. Purse snatching, in particular, was the second most common crime among victims 60-69 and assault was the second most common crime among those over 70. Female respondents outnumbered males, reflecting their larger number in this age group. Females reported much higher rates of breaking and entering, a higher dollar loss, and a higher incidence of offenses in the afternoon. Both sexes reported that most offenses occurrred in the home. The racial characteristics of the sample resembled those of the city as a whole: 63 percent white, 36 percent black, and 1 percent other. White females suffered most from offenses, black males least. Fear of crime was equal among blacks and whites, even though twice as many whites were victimized as blacks. The most serious offenses reported by black respondents were likely to be personal crimes; the most serious offenses reported by white victims were likely to be property losses. The survey found that most elderly persons carried a minimum amount of money with them, avoided certain streets, and avoided going out alone at night. However, the use of special locks and other home security devices was low. More whites than blacks had their social security checks mailed directly to the bank. The following recommendations were made: that the police offer home security inspections; that security items be offered at lower cost to senior citizens; that the improvement of home security be publicly funded; and that banks continue to advertise their direct deposit services. The police should also conduct educational campaigns in crime prevention for the elderly.

6. Native Victims

Chadwick, B.C., Stauss, J., Bahr, H.M., and Halverson, L.K. Confrontation with the Law: The Case of the American Indians in Seattle. Phylon, 1976, 37 (2), pp. 163-171.

A random sample of 200 adult residents of the Seattle, Wash., Indian community were surveyed during 1972 to determine the type and extent of legal problems encountered by urbanized American Indians. Half of the sample was located and interviewed by trained Indian interviewers, while for comparative purposes, a random sample of 1,000 white adults was selected and queried by mail. Both samples were asked to indicate how many times they had been arrested during the past year. The Indians reported 24 arrests per 100 persons as compared to 4 out of a 100 for the general population. Both samples were also questioned regarding their perception of being the victim of consumer fraud or exploitation. The whites perceived much more consumer fraud than did the Indians, with the only exception being that significantly more Indians complained of excessive interest rates on money borrowed or goods purchased on credit. Compared to the whites, Indians were more likely to report incidents of receiving abusive letters, landlords holding belongings, or evictions from housing. The data also revealed that the level of legal action experienced by the Indians was significantly greater than that for the general population. In fact, in view of the extensive Indian involvement in both the criminal and civil legal areas, it can be concluded that Indians in Seattle are engaged in a continuous struggle with the legal system. However, while the Indian sample used legal aid services more frequently than the whites, the number receiving aid did not approach the number reporting problems. Only 10 percent of the Indians who had been arrested had been represented by an attorney. Of those who went unrepresented, 25 percent felt that an attorney would have enhanced their defense. One out of every five who said they had been in trouble with the law or needed legal assistance were only vaguely familiar with attorneys or what they could do to secure legal advice.

Dadrion, V.N. Victimization of the American Indian. Victimology, 1976, 1 (4) pp. 517-537.

The author explores the theme of victimization of the Indians at the hand of white settlers from a sociological perspective. It is postulated that particular forms of victimization are a function of two basic determinants -- interactional and structural. The understanding of the victimization of the American Indian is seen as revolving around two key issues: the types of victimization, and the processes of victimization. This view calls for specifying and detailing the processes involving two factors -- culture contact and culture conflict. The character and range of mutually perceived cultural discrepancies transformed the culture contact between whites and Indians into a broader matrix of culture conflict entailing coercive domination. Historical analysis of the politico-legal restructuring of Indian life documents the use of forcible resettlement, detribalization, missionization, assimilation, and lethal violence leading to extermination. As far as types of victimization are concerned, the following observations may be advanced: victimization involved regionally instigated, rather than centrally legitimized and authorized perpetrations; coercive methods rather than lethal violence; more dislocation than immediate and direct destruction; in terms of a general trend, more assimilative disintegration than exclusionary obliteration; and finally, more temporal, segmental, and sporadic destruction than typical genocide.

French, L. Minority Perspective on Violence. International Journal of Comparative and Applied Criminal Justice, 1979, 3 (1) pp. 43-49.

The nature and extent of violence within black, Chicano, and American Indian subcultures are discussed. Blacks are disproportionately represented in acts of violence, both as defenders and victims. Nationwide statistics for 1977 show that blacks accounted for 52 percent of all the recorded major violent offences (murder, rape, robbery, and assault). The Chicano (Mexican-American) self-image is derived from a culturally-bound behavioral model based on a machismo/fatalism relationship which often results in overly aggressive behavior. Much of it is violation of the dominant cultural criminal and behavioral norms. Alcohol and violence represent the contemporary lifestyle of the marginal native American. Statistics from 1972 show that native Americans have the highest alcohol-related crime rate of any racial group in the United States. Structural factors contributing to subcultural violence include (1) its prevalence as a social control mechanism and means for obtaining objectives in the absence of a traditional means of non-violent behavioral control and goal attainment and (2) low self-images stimulating aggressive behavior due to unstable and ill-defined measures of worth in an accepting culture. Overall, these minority cultures have poorly defined behavioral norms for dealing with various life situations, leaving the way open for activation of the least sophisticated and complex approach to problem-solving violence.

Jilek, W., and Roy, C. Homicide Committed by Canadian Indians and Non-Indians. International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 1976, 20 (3), pp. 201-215. (Canadian)

This study involved the comparison of socio-demographic and cultural variables between Indian and non-Indian inmates convicted of homicide and incarcerated in four B.C. institutions. Data were also gathered and analyzed which related to the offender's attitudes, personality and criminal history, as well as to his relationship with the victim and other characteristics of the victim. The results suggested that compared to white homicides, Indian homicides demonstrated a lack of purposefulness of the homicide, differences in the relationship between the victim and offender, and frequent involvement of alcohol abuse in the crime.

Levy, J.E. and Kunitz, S.J. Indian Reservations: Anomie and Social Pathologies. Southwestern Journal of Anthropology, 1971, 27 (2), pp. 97-128.

Several common notions are examined concerning the relationship between social pathology (homicide, suicide, and alcoholism) and social disorganization and anomie among the Navajo and Hopi Indians. The Navajo are the largest single tribe in the United States. Their suicide and homicide patterns differ from those on the national level as well as those among urban whites and blacks. Navajo suicides and homicide offenders both tend to be males between 35 and 39 years of age who are married with children. The motive for suicide and homicide generally is domestic strife or sexual jealousy, and the murder victim tends to be the wife. Moreover, a high proportion of Navajo homicide offenders commit suicide immediately after committing homicide. Deviance among younger married males is consistent with more traditional patterns of male emotional ability and the instability of Navajo marriage. The highest involvement with drinking and the greatest use of alcohol was found among the most traditional and least acculturated Navajos, while the lowest use and involvement was found in the most acculturated off-reservation group. Also studied was the Hopi Indians' predilection for mildness and sobriety in view of their close proximity and similar economic condition to the Navajos. Overall, the studies suggest that both the prevalence and patterning of these behaviors are largely explainable in terms of persisting elements of aboriginal culture rather than as responses to acculturation and social disorganization. Previous approaches to the subject have been more influenced by western traditions of social thought than by any consideration of the data and theory appropriate to their analysis and interpretation. However, the results do not imply that white conquest has had no deleterious effects on Indian life, or that government programs for Indians should be discontinued. Rather, such programs must be based on moral and political considerations as well as on the findings of the social sciences.

Minnesota Crime Prevention Center. Battered Women in Minneapolis. Minneapolis: Author, 1977.

Police department records in Minneapolis, Minn., were examined for the period July 1, 1974, through June 30, 1975, to determine the nature and extent of the battered woman problem. During the study period, the police department recorded 21,909 crimes, of which 4,537 were assaults, and 790 were assaults against women by husbands, ex-husbands, or boyfriends. This is a 3.6 percent of all offenses. Rapes accounted for 1.7 percent of all offenses and female victims of assaults by strangers, (1.2 percent). Since only about a third of all assaults are reported to the police, and since domestic assaults have a lower reporting rate than most crimes, it is estimated that about 2,220 women were actually battered during the year. The study found that most reported cases were near the center of the city, 59.5 percent of the women were 18 through 29 years and 72.6 percent were aged 18 through 35, and that minority women were over-represented. Black women, who make up 4 percent of the population, accounted for 24.9 percent of the reports. American Indians make up 1 percent of the population, and accounted for 10.3 percent of the reports. The data also indicated a number of cross-racial assaults. The crimes were spread evenly throughout the week, but were concentrated during the evening hours. Tables and maps present study data. The study results are used to recommend 24-hour crisis centers located near the center of the city.

Report of the Metis and Non-Status Indian Crime and Justice Commission. Ottawa: Author, 1977. (Canadian)

This report seeks to suggest possible solutions to the high rate of involvement of Native people at all levels of the criminal justice system. Data were collected by means of interviews with penal system staff, Native organizations and Native inmates, and by gathering of readily available statistics. The report includes a number of recommendations for staffing and development of programs for Native people.

U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, South Dakota Advisory Committee. Liberty and Justice for All. Author, 1977.

The quality of justice available to a specific geographic group of native Americans in South Dakota was assessed to investigate allegations of discriminatory practices in the criminal justice system. The project investigated the off-reservation areas of largely urban Pennington County and rural Charles Mix County. Reports of alleged exclusion from juries, discriminatory use of bail, and the lack of adequate legal representation were investigated, along with charges of harassment, abuse, and disparate treatment by law enforcement officials in the state. The issues investigated were confined to criminal justice matters involving state, county, and municipal law enforcement agencies. Approximately 130 persons were interviewed throughout the state, including state officials, law enforcement officers, defense and prosecuting attorneys, judges, court administrators, community organization representatives, native American complainants, and other interested persons. Statistical data and other pertinent information were also gathered as background material. The study found evidence of widespread abuse of police power throughout the state. Improprieties included selective law enforcement, search and arrest without cause, harassment and brutal treatment, arrest of intoxicated persons on disorderly conduct charges, and simple discourtesies. Further, the court-appointed defense attorney system was found to place indigent defendants at a serious disadvantage. It was also found that native Americans rarely serve on juries, that the bail system works to their disadvantage, and that affirmative action efforts are inadequate. Specific findings and recommendations are provided with regard to jursidiction, criminal justice records, employment of native Americans by law enforcement agencies and the courts, law enforcement officers' standards, upgrading law enforcement personnel, abuse of police power, civil defense units, handling rape victims, alcohol and crime, trial delays, communications problems in the courts, the defense system, the bail system, jury representation, and poverty and crime.

Ward, J.A. and Fox, J. Suicide Epidemic on an Indian Reserve. Canadian Psychiatric Association Journal, 1977, 22 (8). (Canadian)

A psychiatric study of eight suicide victims, 17 to 31 years old, in a rural Indian community in Canada is conducted based on interviews with family and neighbors plus hospital and criminal justice data. All victims were Canadian Indian and gave warning of their suicidal intent. The majority were male (five), used firearms as the mode of suicide (six), killed themselves near or in the parental home (six), and had clearly consumed alcohol immediately prior to death (six). There was no evidence of a family background involving a large number of inadequate caretakers, although all came from large families, and parental illness or loss was experienced by five of the victims. Only two had received previous psychiatric treatment, and only three had training school or arrest records. All of the victims appeared to be socially isolated, had poor self-esteem, and lacked communications and interpersonal relations skills. These factors contributed to the victims' vulnerability and excessive dependency on the parental family. They also showed an inability to cope with conflict and stress, using withdrawal, internalization, and alcohol abuse to cope with frustration. Noticeable acculturation into industrial/technological society has brought a concommittant loosening of social bonds with a loss of traditional values and family influence in this community. This has produced a state of anomie with subsequent increases in suicide, homicide, and violent death on the reserve. The occurrence of these eight suicides within a single 12-month period in a community of only 37 families makes the annual suicide rate for this population astronomical. Sociocultural anomie coupled with the vulnerable personalities of the victims resulted in epidemic incidence of suicide.

7. Rural Victims

Chimbos, P. and Montgomery, R. Violent Crimes in a Non-Metropolitan Area of Ontario. Crime et/and Justice, 1978, 6 (4), pp. 234-245. (Canadian)

Assaults and robberies in a non-metropolitan area of Ontario were tested for association with socio-economic and temporal-spatial variables in an attempt to generalize urban crime patterns to non-urban areas. The variables investigated included age, sex, race, domestic relationship, temporality, place of occurrence, weapons, injury and alcoholic intoxication. Information on 224 violent offenses was obtained from police files and coded onto a research questionnaire according to the above categories. The findings showed that the majority of offenders were of relatively low socio-economic status, with 40 per cent falling outside the labour force, occupation unknown. While 91 per cent of the offenders were males, 43 per cent of the victim category were female. The age range for 53 per cent of the offenders was between 21 and 50. White offenders numbered 185 and 29 were native Indians, who represent 14 per cent of the offenses while being a 3.1 per cent minority of the population. In 34 per cent of the cases victim and offender were related to each other; 31 per cent of the violent acts occurred between spouses. The method of offense involved the hands and feet in 83 per cent of attacks by men. Attacks by women usually involved use of weapons. The majority of injuries received by victims were of a minor nature, but when alcohol was involved, more serious victim injury ensued. Alcohol was present in at least 37 per cent of the victims and 65 per cent of the offenders.

Davenport, J. and Davenport, J. Rural Rape Crisis Centre. A Model. Human Services in the Rural Environment, 1979, 1 (1), pp. 29-39.

This article describes the problems and needs of sexual assault victims in rural areas, discusses how those problems negatively affect the rural justice system, outlines a model rural rape crisis center in operation in Mississippi, and offers suggestions for improving the quality of rural justice. Although rural and urban rape victims share many needs and problems, the lack of anonymity and confidentiality can be a great problem in rural areas. Pressure not to report the crime or to press charges may be exerted by family members in an effort to maintain the social fabric of the community. Problems of objectivity exist in rural courts, where victims with unchaste reputations or who live outside the community may find it difficult to prosecute or convict a local male. Another major problem is that few rural areas have the finances to support a full-time rape crisis center; the number of rapes may not justify a center's establishment. A rape crisis center, which began as part of the regional community mental health center in Mississippi, built on existing resources. In this center, skilled mental health professionals form a team comprised almost entirely of females to provide community education, to train outreach workers, to advise community health and legal personnel, and to provide specialized services to victims. Overcoming suspicion of and opposition to a new service is accomplished through a community oriented effort based on the existing consultation and education component of the regional mental health program.

Donnermeyer, J.F. *Rural Crime Research: An Overview of Victimization and Offender Studies.* Ohio State University: National Rural Crime Prevention Center, 1982.

A "state-of-the-art" review of rural crime research. When commonality of research design permits, similarities and differences in the findings of various studies are noted. Also considered is a broad agenda of major research questions on rural crime, including: (1) the pattern of criminal victimization among subsectors of the rural populations, including farm residents, non-farm residents, commercial property, and public property; (2) the development of theoretical models to explain the emergence of rural crime in the U.S. during the 1960's and 1970's; and (3) the importance of evaluative research on the effectiveness of rural-oriented crime reduction strategies, including patrol and enforcement, criminal penalties and restitution, and citizen involvement programs. Addressed are several methodological issues salient to the conduct of rural crime research. Primary focus is on construction of comparable research designs for state Agricultural Experiment Station projects, and the advantages and disadvantages of replicability of rural crime research conducted at the state (or substate) level.

Donnermeyer, J.F. and Cox, R. *Criminal Victimization and Attitudes Toward Crime and Crime Prevention Among Farm Operators: A Comparative Analysis.* Ohio State University: National Rural Crime Prevention Center, 1981.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation's Uniform Crime Reports, the rate of crime in the rural U.S. has increased over 500% since 1959. Most of the increase is due to the dramatic rise of property-oriented offenses. The purpose here is to examine the extent and pattern of victimization occurring to the farm population based upon the results of a nine county rural Ohio victim survey conducted in 1975. Farm operators may be especially vulnerable to crime, due, in part, to the high value of farm equipment inventories and the dispersal of machinery and out-buildings away from the homestead, making surveillance of farm property difficult. Compared are farmers' attitudes toward crime and crime prevention with those of the rural non-farm population; factors associated with positive attitudes toward preventive behavior are examined.

Donnermeyer, J.F., Philips, G.H. and Steiner, M.J. Age, Fear of Crime, and Victimization in Rural Areas. Ohio State University: National Rural Crime Prevention Center, 1981.

Reviewed are the results of two rural victimization studies in Ohio and Indiana from an age comparative perspective. While the National Crime Study has estimated that actual victimization among the urban elderly is (with the exception of only a few specific crimes such as con games, fraud, and purse-snatching) much lower than among other age groups, fear of crime is significantly higher among older persons. Examined is the correlate of age with victimization and fear of crime among the rural population. These patterns are compared with those based on the results of crime studies among the urban population.

Gibbs, J. Crime Against Persons in Urban, Suburban and Rural Areas: A Comparative Analysis of Victimization Rates. Albany, N.Y.: Criminal Justice Research Centre, 1979.

This paper reports the results of an analysis of U.S. National Crime Survey data aimed at comparing urban, suburban and rural crime rates and patterns. The major findings were that:

- Urban rates of personal victimization are greater than suburban rates of personal victimization, and suburban rates are greater than rural rates independent of personal characteristics (sex, age, marital status, race, family income, and major activity).

- The differences between urban, suburban, and rural area rates are greater for violent victimization than for theft victimization.

- The victimization patterns within areas are similar; for example, in each population area, males have a higher rate than females, the young are more likely to be victimized than older persons, low family income groups have a higher rate of violent victimization than high family income groups, and high family income groups have a higher rate of theft victimization than low family income groups.

- Personal characteristics have more influence on victimization rates in rural areas than in urban or suburban areas; for example, although males have a higher rate of personal victimization than females in each population area, the difference between the male and female rates is higher in rural areas than in suburban or urban areas.

Larson, J.H. Victimization in the Hinter Land. University of North Dakota: Social Science Research Institute, 1982.

Crime and delinquency tend to be seen as urban phenomena. Recently, a small number of empirical studies have challenged this perspective. Reported is research carried out in 16 rural counties in North Dakota, with the purpose of describing victimization rates, perception of safety, and related contact with criminal justice agencies in rural and urban settings. A standardized instrument was administered in a "face to face" context to 1,200 respondents living in large city, small city, rural non-farm, and rural farm locations. Victimization responses were recorded in 10 categories on a card with the item: "Have you or anyone in your household been a victim of crime or attempted crime during the last 12 months?" Protective services consisted of 10 items starting with general inquiry about police and fire protection. Perceptions of personal and property safety were generated from four items. Data were collected in the fall of 1976 and the spring of 1977. Results revealed that the urban centers had higher victimization levels; however, the distinction between small towns and rural areas was not substantiated. Industrialized areas did not reflect expected higher victimization levels. Individuals in urban centers compared to rural farm areas reported a perceived need to secure their property. Interestingly, geographical location did not differentiate perceptions concerning personal safety.

Moore, J. Rural Victimization in Texas. Sam Houston University, Doctoral Dissertation, 1979.

The purpose of this study was to examine the criminal victimization of a rural population in terms of the incidence and consequences of rural crime in Texas. The survey sample consisted of 2,999 rural Texans, drawn through a stratified sampling process from the driver's license file maintained by the Texas Department of Public Safety. A four-part rural Texas crime survey instrument was used to elicit responses concerning crime events during the past year. Selected ecological, situational and demographic variables were assessed for their relationship with the victimization of rural residents and crime reporting. Generally, the study failed to identify any factors which adequately accounted for the victimization of rural residents of Texas.

Philips, G.H. and Wursehmidt, T.N. Ohio Rural Victimization Study. Paper prepared for the 1979 Rural Sociological Society Meetings. Burlington, Vermont, 1979.

A victimization study was undertaken in order to learn more about the nature and scope of crime in rural Ohio. Performed in 1974, the study involved a victimization survey administered to residents of 889 rural households located within nine selected Ohio counties. The recall period for reported incidents was confined to one year. Analysis of data showed property crimes, especially those involving vandalism and larceny theft, to be the overwhelming problem in rural Ohio. The finding was in contrast to the problem as reported by Ohio sheriffs via an offenders study conducted within the same counties during an overlapping time period. The disparity appears due to the fact that only 45 percent of admitted victimization incidents were reported to law enforcement agencies. The most frequently expressed reason for not reporting incidents was that it would have been 'no use'. Several socioeconomic characteristics of victims and non-victims were examined against the dependent variables of burglary, theft, and vandalism in an effort to discern differences between the two groups or within the victims' category. Only two relationships proved significant. First, residents in the highest income group were nearly twice as often victims of vandalism as middle and lower income groups. Second, church members from every denominational group examined owned property which was vandalized, at a significantly greater rate than property owned by non-church members. The crime of vandalism was the only dependent variable which demonstrated marked differences when tested against the selected socioeconomic characteristics. It is hoped that the findings from this first major state-wide victimization study can provide fuel for generating hypotheses for future research.

Smith, B.L. Criminal Victimization in Rural Areas. In Price, B.R. and Baunach, P.J. (eds) Criminal Justice Research: New Models and Findings. Beverly Hills, Ca: Sage, 1980.

Selected residents in a rural county in west-central Indiana were interviewed concerning their personal experience with crime over a 12-month period. Results were compared to several urban and national crime surveys to ascertain differences between urban and rural crime reporting patterns. In addition to demographic and attitude questions, the questionnaire included victimization screen items, which identified respondents for the completion of a crime incident report. A total of 481 interviews were conducted at 222 households: 102 business proprietors participated in the commercial component of the survey, the personal and household victimization survey identified 148 victimizations. The commercial victimization portion identified 105 incidents. The victimization rates were lower than those previously found in urban areas, but were approximately the same as the national averages. Males had a greater probability for victimization than females, and persons under 25 were more likely to be victims than older persons. Upper income families were somewhat more likely to be victims than lower income households. Only 22 percent of personal victimizations and 27 percent of household ones were reported to police; in urban studies about 36 and 27 percent respectively were reported. Crimes were probably not reported because informal sanctions are preferred in rural societies.

This hypothesis was supported by data analysis which revealed that offenses in the urbanized areas of the county were more likely to be reported even when seriousness of the offense was controlled. Little research has been conducted on the characteristics of rural crime; additional research is needed.

Smith, B.L. and Donnermeyer, J.F. Victimization in Rural and Urban Areas: A Comparative Analysis, 1979.

This paper reports on the results of a criminal victimization survey in Benton County, Indiana, a predominantly agricultural community. The distribution of crime by type is examined. In 1975, at the time of the study, Benton County had a population of 10,828 persons. Major foci of the study include the type of criminal activity most likely to occur, the total volume of crime, and the proportion of criminal victimization in this rural area compared with national averages and with the rates of various metropolitan areas. A stratified proportionate sample of residents in the county was obtained using an area probability sampling technique. The county was divided into three strata: town, village, and open country. A total of 181 sampling blocks of 20 dwelling units were drawn up, and 481 respondents from 222 households were interviewed for the household information, personal information, household screen questions, personal screen questions, and crime incident report. Study findings lead to these conclusions: (1) a greater proportion of crime experienced by rural residents is of a less serious nature than offenses experienced by residents of urban areas; (2) the volume of crime occurring within rural areas is generally equivalent to that of non-metropolitan areas of 50,000 or less, but not as high as that of metropolitan areas of 50,000 or more; (3) the proportion of victimizations experienced by rural residents in urban areas, or outside the county, is higher than the proportion of victimizations experienced by urban residents when outside the urban area.